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THE
MARYLAND
SCHOOL JOURNAL.

1878-79

M. A. NEWELL,

Principal of the State Normal School,

CHAS. G. EDWARDS,

Pres't Teachers' Ass'n of Baltimore,

EDITORS.

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THE
MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

DEVOTED TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION.

Vol. V. OCTOBER, 1878. No. 1.

MODERN EDUCATION,—ITS DANGERS AND ITS
REQUIREMENTS.

BY PROF. H. E. SHEPHERD,
Superintendent of Public Schools, Baltimore.

[Read Before the Maryland State Teachers' Association Aug. 28, 1878.]

The varying and manifold influences, that will develop an educational era of unsurpassed interest, are actively at work among all the enlightened nations of the earth. In no preceding era has there been a grander development of educational power, and never, perhaps, was there a period of such vital importance as the present. These propositions may at first sight appear inconsistent and even paradoxical. But a moment's reflection cannot fail to discover that the discrepancy is only seeming, and is capable of rational explanation. You are familiar from your knowledge of literary history with that inexorable law of intellectual development—that the creative and the critical cannot coëxist in vigor or perfection. Reflection succeeds imagination, a critical philosophy follows an age of creative energy. Contrast, for illustration, the age of Elizabeth and the age of Anne, or the era of Pericles with the

Alexandrine period of lexical and philological activity. In all the manifestations of the human mind this law prevails. And by a natural extension and application of this principle we discover that the true conception of education, as a means of moral and intellectual perfection, is in danger of obsolescence among American educationists in the closing decades of the XIX century, when the critical faculties are so intensely developed as to have brought us to the threshold, if not into the very heart of a new Augustan age. When we contemplate the immense expenditures that are annually made for the support of public instruction, the constant expansion as well as the perfected appliances of our common school system, some may be tempted to exclaim: "These be brave words," and were better left unsaid.

The principal dangers that threaten the welfare of American education, and modern education in general, may be arranged under two or three distinct and well defined heads: First—That which may be designated the Technical, the Professional, or the Utilitarian theory. Second—The insidious growth of materialism and its wide-reaching popularity, sustained and rendered doubly attractive by the fascination of illustrious names, and the patronage of renowned universities. It is apparent at a glance that both these are intimately related, and they may with propriety be regarded as different phases of the same central heresy. The first of these is a delusion that has in all ages vexed the soul of the true educationist, and one whose immense development in contemporary times is largely to be ascribed to the diffusion of the Baconian philosophy. Nowhere in the history of the Revival of Learning was the divorce between the purely intellectual and the material so complete as in the system of Bacon. Practical utility, the apotheosis of human comfort, and physical well being, the subjection of the agencies of nature to human control, such was the ideal to which his philosophy tended. He seems to have enjoyed a strange prevision of our modern civilization, and had he lived until the

present epoch in modern history, when it is proposed to convert our colleges into Polytechnic or Professional schools, and their curriculum is denounced by educational oracles in high places as medieval, traditional and antiquated, he would have beheld the goal of his philosophy, the climax of his hopes. To deny or to depreciate the wisdom of that philosophy, which proposes as one of its loftiest aims the amelioration of human suffering and the extension of human comfort, would be vain and futile. But the consistent application of the Baconian philosophy involves the subordinating of all pure and ennobling culture to the attainment of mere utility as its end and ideal. The perfect accord of all the phases of man's intellectual nature, the harmonious development of every faculty, finds no sympathy in a scheme of philosophy, which seeks its ideal in the gratification of the sensuous, and in the exclusive culture of "the things that perish with the using." If, since the age of Elizabeth, the Anglo-Saxon mind has receded more and more from the medieval dream of ideal perfection, if poetry has degenerated since the death of Milton, if metaphysical science has fallen into materialism, and by a natural transition into atheism, if formal logic has been banished from the schools until a recent period, then must the result be largely imputed to the influence of the Baconian philosophy. In all the complex forms of modern intellectual and social life, the outworking of this principle is discernible in its intense, unremitting energy. The immense mechanical and industrial development of the American States, as well as that of the nations and kingdoms of the older world, has imparted an irresistible impulse to the theory of technical and professional education. In France, in Germany, even in conservative England, art museums, industrial schools, polytechnic institutes, are encroaching upon the ancient curriculum, which deals with the acquisition of knowledge as a means to the attainment of an end—intellectual perfection—but not as the end itself. Popular science monthlies, enterprising art directors, scientific charlatans and empirics, are lifting up their

combined voice in blatant declamation against the college and the High School, against their medievalism, and their inability to adapt young men to the successful performance of the so called practical duties of life. The ancient conception of education has been supplanted by the modern and dominant theory, which deals with the human mind as a piece of mechanism, to be trained and cultured for the production of merely temporal advantage, and the promotion of physical comfort. It is no just cause of astonishment that there should exist the most amicable alliance between the advocates of technical or professional education and the school of materialism in philosophy.

No wonder that the school of educationists which concentrate their energies upon man's physical well-being, ignoring or subordinating the disciplinary agencies that tend to perfect his intellectual nature, should gravitate with unerring instinct to that school of philosophy which ignores the distinction between matter and spirit, and endeavors to eliminate the Creator from the universe he has fashioned and sustains in being. No wonder that Prof. Huxley, the oracle and the apostle of biological science, in expounding his ideal scheme of study, should accord no recognition to Latin or Greek, or Mental and Ethical Science, the great instruments of moral and intellectual culture. I do not desire to be understood as in any degree disparaging the beneficent results of science, nor its value as a means of educational discipline. I would accord to the great masters of the department, new and old, the most generous recognition in any symmetrical scheme of studies. No one has beheld its magnificent expansion with sincerer gratification, as the infinite and exquisite applications of the Conservation of Energy have taken all science for its province. Though not a professed scientist, I have given "many days and nights" to the pages of Tait, Helmholtz, Maury, Deschanel and Agassiz. It is against the abuses of "science falsely so called," against the "undevout philosophers run mad," that I am protesting. It

does not seem to have dawned upon the consciousness of our Huxleys and Tyndalls that there are "more things in heaven," if not in earth, "than are dreamt of in their philosophy." The idea of education, rising serenely above the selfish aims of special or professional attainment, is culture in the most comprehensive sense, the generous nurture of every faculty, and the restoring of our nature to that concord and harmony in which it was shaped and fashioned, but which sin has marred and perverted from its primeval purity. For education comprehends infinitely more than the intellectual narrowness of the specialist, or the serene self-complacency of the polytechnic student. Not beholding the truth as "through a glass darkly," it looks "eye to eye on knowledge," and "the obstinate questioning of invisible things," and the intellectual nature redeemed, regenerated, tends slowly to that "far off divine event to which the whole creation moves." The question remains to be considered wherein consists the corrective influence, which is to restore the equilibrium in our system of modern education. Nor is the remedy difficult to seek, or the way straitened and obscure. It is to be found in the assiduous inculcation of the principle that education addresses itself to minds and to mental perfection, that it deals not primarily with the uses of knowledge, but with knowledge itself, that its aim is not to produce scholars or specialists alone, but men "fitted to discharge, justly, skillfully and magnanimously, all the offices, both public and private, of peace and war."

Another and serious cause of apprehension is the gradual disappearance of higher culture, social and intellectual, under the pernicious influence of utilitarian or professional training. Even from England the cry of alarm is sounded by one of her most eminent scholars, no less than the Rector of Lincoln College in the University of Oxford. Those who will read the admirable address of Rev. Mark Pattison, delivered before an association of English teachers, will perceive with grave apprehension how wide is the breach

that already divides the secondary and the higher education of the age.

Having traced somewhat at length, the most characteristic of prevailing educational heresies, it remains to present the counterpart to this somewhat gloomy picture, and to set forth that perfected scheme of studies, whose faithful pursuit tends to the complete enrichment of our several gifts, so that the one talent may produce two other talents, and the five talents, ten.

- 1st. An exclusive devotion to no special line of study during the earlier portions of the student's career, in fact until the High School or collegiate course shall be completed.
- 2d. The recognition of the principle of authority and supervision in the arrangement and prescription of courses of study.
- 3d. The concentration of our time and talents upon a more circumscribed line of studies, the conservation, and not the dissipation of energy, to borrow an illustration from the physical scientists. Between the extremes of a contracting, isolating specialism, and a diffused but attenuated culture lies the golden mean of true education.
- 4th. The next corrective influence, and one rendered an imperative necessity by the prevalence of technical and materialistic conceptions of education, is the emphatic recognition of the claims of language, as an instrument of intellectual and spiritual discipline. And when I speak of language, I mean not only language in its historical or philological aspects, but language in its synthetic forms, in the Idyls of the King, the golden prose of Milton or of Taylor, the stately sentences of Clarendon and of Hooker. The peculiar social and political conditions of American life render the assiduous culture of the mother tongue a patriotic obligation as well as a scholarly duty. The wonderful expansion of physical science, the presentation of scientific truth in popular but unscientific form, the serene self-complacency of our age, disdaining whatever savors of esoteric culture, the dissemination of the sensational novel, the hot haste in which most of the articles in our daily papers are produced, their frequent disregard of grammatical propriety, the debasing

levelling of modern political systems, striving to obliterate the distinction which nature and culture have interposed between man and man, have combined to rob literary art of much of its lofty imperiousness. The student of linguistic history can not fail to note the significant coincidence—or rather reminder—that the growth of dialectic divergence, the process of phonetic decay, and the superseding of the classic Latin by the *lingua rustica*, received a marked impulse from the edict of Caracallus, by which all distinctions of class were abolished, the franchise extended to the provincial as well as the native, and the descendant of the Cornelian gens and the despised Syrian were alike in the estimation of the law. And while endeavoring to depict the vices of modern prose composition, I cannot forbear to direct your attention to the supreme merit of Addison, whose name, for more than a quarter of a century, was the recognized synonym for all the graces that centre in the English tongue. His surpassing excellence consists not in profusion of learning, or in brilliant delineation, but in the serenity of his style, and the absence of that striving for artistic and dramatic effect which is the bane of modern prose composition. He, who doubts that this lack of antithetic brilliance and artistic grouping, is incompatible with perspicuity, and power, and all the nobler modes of literary excellence, should devote himself to the study of Newman and Pusey. The obligation to cultivate the mother tongue rests upon the high ground of patriotism and of duty. The long continued disregard of our vernacular is one of those intellectual transgressions for which centuries of culture only can atone. If English is to maintain its preëminence as a literary speech, the result is not to be accomplished by an indolent acquiescence in the theory of its elasticity and buoyancy, which exalt it above the necessity of academic restraint, and render it a law unto itself. I have not so interpreted the teachings of linguistic history. It is a cause of just reproach to the language and literature of England and America that there exists no admitted standard of appeal in controverted

questions of literary propriety and linguistic usage. The loftiest attainment of English style too often consists in the unrestrained gratification of eccentricity, a splendid mannerism like that of De Quincey, or a grotesque affectation like that of Carlyle. Of literary artists, men endowed with an intellectual conscience, we can reckon but few in the brilliant procession of genius that extends from the age of Sackville and of Spencer to the era of Morris and of Swinburne.

The partial decline of classical study is another of the unhappy consequences that have followed in the train of the technical and utilitarian movement. It is manifestly a work of supererogation to descant upon the advantages of classical education, and I should justly lay myself open to the charge of presumption, did I undertake to do so. Leaving out of consideration the wealth and the wisdom, the artistic graces and refinements of classical literature, there is no modern idiom, except English, which approaches the ancient tongues in efficiency as a mode of logical discipline. Their arrested development, their insusceptibility to structural changes, are the principal sources of their surpassing excellence for the purposes of aesthetic culture, just as the remains of ancient art, representing a perfected development, constitute the admiration and the despair, the impossible ideal of succeeding ages. The immense indebtedness of the English vocabulary to the Latin is a subject as yet comparatively unexplored by philologists, but one opening up a rich and fruitful field of investigation. Nor is this obligation confined to the vocabulary of abstraction and reflection, and all the nobler forms of thought. The classic element has permeated the daily speech of active life to a degree that is little suspected. The Roman image is reflected in them all. Indeed, the loftiest tribute to the efficacy of classical study as a means of intellectual training, emanates from Helmholtz, whose brilliant researches in ophthalmic science and the physiology of sound entitle him to be regarded as the "foremost man of all the world" in the domain of physics, and whose theories and discoveries Tyndall and Huxley, the

antagonists of classical culture, have reproduced and popularized in an English dress. In his fascinating lecture upon the Advantages of Natural Science, he bears unequivocal testimony to the value of classical study, upon the ground that it "develops all the faculties in pretty nearly the same degree." The student of educational literature cannot have failed to read with pride and satisfaction the recent tendencies of education in Germany, the preëminence accorded to the classics as a preparation for admission from the Gymnasias to the University, in which recognition of preëminence some of the most illustrious men of science cordially concurred.

No more insidious and delusive error is propogated in our day than the oft-repeated platitude, "education must be adapted to the requirements of the age." So far as this may be interpreted as a confounding of knowledge with education, it may be pardoned as a sin of ignorance; so far as it relates to the foundation of technic schools and professional courses, *separate* from the High School and the College, no one is more thoroughly in accord with the movement than myself, and no one in its own sphere will yield it a more cordial support. But the advocates of this movement are not content to rest here. Our High School and Collegiate curriculums must be revolutionized, as being antiquated, medieval and scholastic, classical and mathematical studies must be subordinated to the practical training of the laboratory and to elementary lessons in Biology. For it is a noteworthy fact that our protoplasmic and biological champions do not confine their attacks to the classics alone, but have entered the lists against the pure mathematics, as compared with their cherished sciences. It requires no logical demonstration to convince you that the social virtue and morality of a nation are inseparably connected with the character of its education, and essentially dependent upon it. All history is replete with warnings given for our admonition and instruction. It is a problem to be determined by the discrimination of casuists and psychologists, to what extent the debasement of our national character, the profligate excesses of

political factions, the complete deification of self, and the heathenish worship of self, as incarnated in party, may be traced to the wide prevalence of a theory of education, which aspires to no purer ideal than mere expediency, which eliminates the moral and the spiritual, and attains its climax in the culture of the sensuous and the material. It is an essential fallacy to assume that the cardinal aims of education can ever change, however much its outward forms and modes may be modified by the varying conditions of successive ages. If I may be permitted to draw an illustration from the related sphere of religious development (and so impalpable is the line that divides the provinces of moral and intellectual culture that it is visible only to the infinite penetration of Divine Wisdom), the specific office of the church in all times, under all forms and vicissitudes of polity and organization, is the regeneration of man's moral nature, and the salvation of men's souls. Any departure from this, her heavenly calling, her ordained office work, is fatal to the conception of a church and of Christianity. So the office of true education, in all phases of its history, is the same, the regeneration and perfection of our intellectual being, and any turning aside from this her holy mission to minister to human selfishness, or pander to temporal acquisition, is subversive of the conception of education.

One of the most deplorable educational tendencies of our era has been the organized and systematic attacks that have been directed against higher education. These assaults have not assumed a local or sectional character, they do not proceed from a single faction or party, nor are they inspired by a single purpose. It is irrelevant in this connection to speculate as to the complexity of causes that has produced these energetic incursions upon higher education; the financial exigencies that must needs be ascribed to the burden of High School taxation, the hostility of ecclesiasticism, the contempt of ignorance. It is not our purpose to indulge in dissertations as to the motives or causes that have inspired these attacks; it is ours to contend with the facts, and if possible to repel the

motley array that have combined for the overthrow of this "strong tower and rock of defense" in our system of education.

It seems merely a truism or a platitude to assert that higher education at public expense is justified and demanded by every consideration of political necessity and social preservation. As paradoxical as the assertion may appear, one of the principal perils to be apprehended from the decline of higher education is to be found in the very nature of public or common school instruction. The vast extension of elementary schools, furnishing to all that desire it, the rudiments of knowledge, has combined to render precarious the existence of that pure and ennobling culture, once deemed the indispensable requisite of all that "bore without abuse" the "grand old name of gentleman." For my own part, I have no hesitation in averring that of the two extremes, an elementary education universally disseminated to the exclusion of the highly cultured element of society, or general ignorance relieved by the presence of the cultured element, I decidedly prefer the latter. It is not ignorance alone and unmitigated that is the cause of social distraction or national degeneracy; it is not so much the negative condition of absolute ignorance, as the positive state of error and sophistication, induced by the dangerous possession of a little learning, and the insane conceits inspired by it, that is the prolific mother of moral and social evils.

It is my calm conviction that elementary education universally diffused, without the counteracting influence, the vivifying power of higher education, is a more serious cause of apprehension, and a more pliant ally of agrarian and socialistic evils than stolid, invincible ignorance, a "land of darkness, as darkness itself, and where the light is as darkness." I do not mean here to allude to that purely heathenish learning, such as is embodied in the crazy schemes of materialists, positivists and sociologists. I speak only of higher culture as based upon Christianity as its ground-work, and in perfect accordance with the teachings of revelation and of inspiration.

This much to guard against the possibility of misconception or misapprehension. It is no mere fantasy of the writer to assert that one of the most serious perils now impending over this country is the possibility that in the course of years (and the day may not be very remote), the educated element will be so contracted in numbers and reduced in influence, as to be utterly at the mercy of the half educated class, every year increasing with gigantic strides. Indeed, this dreaded consummation is nearly attained, even in our generation. Is not the sinful prostitution of all phases of our political system a solemn attestation of the truth that ignorance bears rule in high places? Are not its encroachments steady and irresistible?

The evolution of history, the education of the human race, is one unintermitting contest of the educated against the semi-barbarous or uneducated class. It is superfluous to multiply examples, and it would be almost an affront to your intelligence or to your historical acquirements to do so. It is, in truth, a strange paradox that in the closing decades of the nineteenth century, a strong delusion should have possessed the minds of men to destroy the very agencies by which, under the inspiration of Christianity, all genuine civilization has been achieved. It recalls the fanaticism of those reformers who, with insane zeal, desecrated the shrines and temples of the old faith, or who in the time of Luther proposed to abolish schools, burn books, and remand the human race to a state of savagry. Most forcibly does the necessity of widely extended higher culture appeal to us in our present state of political chaos, with the fearful problems of our national existence unsolved. No more impressive commentary upon the necessity of higher education could be presented than the political and social developments of this country within the last twelve years. Legislation wild and fanatical, a polity flagitious in its excesses and heathenish in its abominations, have striven to efface and to destroy the eternal distinctions which God and nature have ordained between man and man.

The profoundest problems of statesmanship, of national conduct, are determined by the despotic will of an irresponsible mass, sustained in consistency by the cohesive power of unreasoning ignorance. The voice of the churl or the boor is as potent for good or for evil as the voice of the serenest wisdom. From a purely human standpoint, there is no counteracting or conserving influence against the Iliad of woes that may be developed out of our political condition, except the vigorous and efficient maintenance of a large and powerful *educated class*. Nor can this educated class be maintained in sufficient numbers and strength to be available, except by the generous support of our higher schools. The proportion of young men that enter the reputable colleges and universities of the country is fearfully small when compared with the increase of population. In the State of Maryland, with a population of 800,000, there are probably not more than 500 young men in attendance upon academic courses in established colleges within or without the State. The University of Virginia, largely patronized by Marylanders, records on its last catalogue 19 students from this State. In our own city not more than 3 per cent. of our pupils ever enter the High Schools or the City College; not more than $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. even pass through the Grammar School course.

Under the existing state of things, there is no ground for the apprehension indulged in by some that the race of Gibeonites, the hewers of wood and drawers of water will become extinct in the land, or that "all will come to desolation," because everybody is being educated in High Schools, and made mad by much learning. Again, it is argued by the antagonists of higher education that a generous and symmetrical culture is not a condition requisite for the attainment of professional success, that Shakespeare never received a college education, nor did George Washington, and yet both of them attained the highest point of all their greatness, despite their lack of educational facilities. Those who urge this sophism constitute the most conspicuous illustration of its egregious

absurdity. For men of superior intellectual endowments are those that stand least in need of scholastic training, and are least benefitted by it. Men whose powers are quickened into activity by nature's own prodigality, do not require the painful discipline of the college, or the technical training of the university. The gospel of education is not preached to the righteous. It seeks to save those that are lost, those whose faculties demand intellectual regeneration. It does not trouble itself with the miracles of genius, with Faraday or Hugh Miller, with Keats or Shakespeare. It is primarily and principally addressed to the chartered imbecility of mankind, which is often indignant at the affront put upon its little greatness. It is true that Shakespeare passed through all the periods of his development, from the flippant conceits of *Love's Labor Lost*, to the inexplicable psychology of *Hamlet*, without the facilities of collegiate education. But the typical man of the *genus homo* scarcely attains a respectable mediocrity, after the most persistent training, and with ten times richer advantages than ever Shakespeare or Washington imagined. At this advanced stage of the discussion, it seems almost a work of supererogation to remind you that in all ages, and under all historical conditions, the higher schools have proved the animating and inspiring principle of every system of education, and that none has ever attained the full measure of its usefulness or its efficiency, except under the ennobling influence of the college, the university or the high school. The common school can rarely impart more than a purely mechanical culture. If no higher ideal than this is presented, a people must and will relapse into intellectual savagery. After the revival of learning in the twelfth century, the noble universities of Italy and of Paris became the centres of light that drew all men unto them. It was, more properly stated, the establishment of universities that made the revival of learning a possibility, that prepared the way for the Renaissance, and thus created the conditions under which modern culture and enlightenment have been placed

upon an enduring basis. It is no hyperbole or rhetorical exaggeration to assert that he who founds a college or a university does more for the advancement of pure education than he that establishes a system of common schools.

Every educated man and every higher school is a city set upon a hill, whose light cannot be hid. The law of knowledge is descent from higher to lower ; it never rises from lower to higher. It droppeth like the gentle rain from heaven upon the place beneath, and is blessed in the giving as well as in the receiving. It is too well known to require even a passing allusion that the animating power of the German system of education is to be found in their universities, the great resort of the special student in every sphere of science. In the neighboring State of Virginia, the salutary influence of the noble university, founded by Mr. Jefferson, sustains and renders necessary the high standard of classical scholarship prevailing in the excellent academies and high schools so numerous in her borders. The university is the "touchstone" by which their work is tested, and most of them are conducted by those who have received their inspiration from the illustrious scholars and teachers who have adorned this shrine of pure and unsullied learning. The low standard of professional education, or rather of education that is preparatory to the special training of the technical school, is another argument in favor of maintaining the standard of our higher schools, and rendering a generous culture accessible to all that will avail themselves of the proffered opportunity.

The hosts of fledglings every year turned adrift into the professions of law and medicine, constitute a forcible illustration of the necessity for more and better high school education. It cannot be too deeply impressed upon us, that the college curriculum, antiquated or medieval, as Dr. Draper, Dr. White, or Prof. Huxley may consider it, furnishes the best appliances and instruments of intellectual training. The wisdom of man has devised no better mode of culture than the college curriculum, with its judicious blending of languages

and mathematics, calling into requisition every phase of our intellectual being, and developing all to their fullest tension. In the professional school the faculties are concentrated upon exclusive studies or special lines of thought, for whose successful acquisition the student is oftentimes unprepared, by reason of the want of that symmetry of culture and development, whose foundation is to be laid in the high school or the college alone.

The licentiousness of American politics has infected the domain of education, and the crude outgrowths of untended brains, too often mistaken for the utterances of oracular wisdom, have set aside the rigid but salutary discipline which provides for the equipment of every faculty, and guards against the neglect or the repression of any. To the action of this tendency must be ascribed in large measure the too frequent existence of professional incompetency and premature discouragement. For I hold that no scientific knowledge of either law, or medicine, or theology is attainable, except its study be preceded by a thorough scholarly training as its basis. I am aware that many, who have not this training, achieve what is popularly designated success; but this does not detract from the truth of my observation. When I read Mr. Austin's lecture on the "Education of a Lawyer," or Lord Campbell's account of the professional as well as scholarly education to which Sir Matthew Hale submitted himself before he commenced the practice of law, I stand aghast at the modern medical and legal stripling, sent into his profession "before his time, scarce half made up," without sufficient acquirements to have revealed the existence of his own defects.

To all that regard the elevation of the standard of professional education as worthy of their consideration and support, the maintenance of high schools is a matter of most serious concern. In this time of exigency, when the integrity of our higher schools is imperilled by the combination of adverse influences to which I have alluded, it becomes the imperative duty of every patriot, of every scholar,

and of every teacher to array himself for their support, to abstain from censorious criticisms upon their real or imagined shortcomings, to contribute zealously to the extension of their influence and their efficiency. To the teachers, and especially the principals of grammar schools, there could occur nothing more disastrous than the degradation of the high schools, or the decline of their popularity. Upon the score of self-interest alone, it behooves every grammar school teacher to place himself in line of battle for the defense of the high schools. They are not the outer or picket posts, they form the strong central point in our system. When we consider the question in this light, it should create no surprise or astonishment that the practiced strategic eye of our antagonists should have selected them as the salient point upon which to direct their principal attack. Their acute perception has not failed to discover the continuity which exists between them and the lower schools. They know that if this continuity could be severed, the whole system must by degrees "totter to its fall." Whether we shall be drawn into the net, and reap the fruit of their devices, depends upon the earnestness and the unanimity with which we rally to the support of our higher schools. Their subversion would not only be attended with the impairing of the whole system, it would involve a loss of dignity and character, a lowering of the tone and spirit of the profession in all its ranks, to say nothing of the reduction of compensation which would follow as one of its logical and necessary results.

It will be observed that throughout this discussion I have refrained from considering the question as to what extent the assaults made upon higher education may be due to imperfections in modes of teaching or programmes of instruction. How far the combined attack that has been directed against high schools may be attributed to intrinsic weakness it is not my purpose here to investigate. Yet I shall by no means decline the discussion of the question if it is presented in that form, and with a genuine anxiety to resolve the difficulties with which the subject is invested.

To sum up in a concise form the substance of this desultory essay, the requirements of modern education are: 1st. The recognition of the obsolescent idea that education deals *directly* with *minds*, *indirectly* with professions or temporal vocation; and that its objective point is pure culture. 2d. The exclusion of professional or industrial training, from courses of pure education, either in the Academy, the High School, or the College, and their concentration into avowed technical institutions, in which they may and should be carried to perfection. 3d. The restriction of the tendency to encyclopedism and abridgment, which are varying forms of the same fundamental error, an error conspicuously displayed in the attempted teaching of history by means of compendiums and epitomes, a species of intellectual dishonesty denounced by Bacon in his "Advancement of Learning" as the "corruptions and moths of history." 4th. A discreet and judicious enforcement of the principle of supervision and authority, and a restriction of that liberty or license which leaves to a great extent his educational destiny in the hands of an immature and undeveloped student. 5th. The bridging over of that hiatus which separates secondary and higher education and the blending into a system of harmonious development and progression, all grades of schools, from the Primary class to the University. 6th. The recognition of the principle that a symmetrical culture is the requisite preparation for eminence and the loftiest usefulness in any of the graver professions and vocations. 7th. The supervision and administration of educational interests by those whom nature, culture and experience have called to this high mission, and the total withdrawal of our systems of education from the control of those who "use them as abusing them." From the appalling exhibitions of educational ignorance in high places, so often the shame and the reproach of public education, it is to be earnestly hoped that the time of our deliverance is at hand. 8th. The elevation of teaching to the dignity of a profession (for that can scarcely be denominated a profession which demands no preliminary tests or qualifications

for its pursuit) and the exaction of rigorous requirements of all those that aspire to minister in the temples of learning. The attainment of these ends is the true path to success. Let us tread it with confidence in the assured result.

Our systems of education—I include all ranks and degrees—are passing through a season of crisis and of conflict that must “try them as by fire.” The complexity of modern civilization, the bewildering diversity of interests, passions and prejudices that control the springs of human action, are striving to degrade education from its lofty mission as the divinely ordained instrumentality for the regenerating of man’s intellectual nature into a debasing system of mere training, having for its goal the perfection of his physical nature, just as the race-horse is trained for the stadium, or the athlete for the arena. The civilization of the family of Cain is the ideal of many modern educationists. Against these insidious and fatal tendencies it becometh each of us to strive earnestly and prayerfully in his appointed sphere and according to his several ability, lest at some day, even though far remote, in accordance with that mysterious law by which the moral and the intellectual are indissolubly blended in polity, in education and in all the nobler forms and modes of human activity, we as a people shall be turned unto our own way, and from those that have not, shall be taken even that which they seem to have.

FROM the nature of things, the income of most of the inhabitants of the earth must be limited, and, indeed, within very narrow bounds.

The product of labor throughout the world, if equally divided, would not make the share of each individual large.

It is impossible that everyone should be what is called rich. But it is by no means impossible to be independent. And what is the way to compass this—as Burns appropriately designates it—“glorious privilege?”

The method is very simple. It consists in one rule: Limit your wants. Make them few and inexpensive.

EDUCATION OF THE VOICE.

At a recent intercollegiate oratorical contest in this city, there was no more gratifying evidence of the good results of all such general competitions than the attention which most of the speakers showed that they had given to the management of the voice. The first prize this year, at last, fell to a student of Hamilton College; and at the reception given there to Mr. Laird, when he returned with the same honors won by Mr. Elliott, the services of Prof. Frink, who had carefully trained both gentlemen, received merited acknowledgement. The substance of an oration acquires its true value through a finished delivery, and it has been justly decided that the awarding of the prize shall depend upon the best union of both qualities. The competitors from Hamilton, Columbia, Williams, Lafayette and Rutgers showed a marked improvement in this respect over their brethren of the previous year. In fact, only one or two of the speakers betrayed the influence of the old-fashioned, high-pitched, monotonous twang.

The ordinary American voice sorely lacks compass and variety. In clearness of tone and free and animated delivery, the American usually excels the English speaker; but he falls behind the latter in depth, richness and varied intonation. Foreigners have noticed the same peculiarity upon the same key. The only model of many of our political speakers is apparently the revival preacher, and nothing is more common than to hear an excellent address almost ruined by an artificial style of delivery. Our best orators have invariably cultivated the habit of using the deeper chest tones, through the development of which the true power and compass of the voice can only be attained. In the "Rules for Declamation," which Goethe wrote for the training of actors at the Weimar Theatre, he says: "The greatest necessity is, that the actor should utter everything he declaims in as deep a tone as possible; for he thereby reaches a greater compass of voice, and with it the power of giving all shades of expression. But if he begin on

a high pitch he soon loses the habit of a deep masculine tone, and with it the true expression of what is lofty and intellectual."

The proper use of the voice should be taught in connection with the pronunciation of the language. It is absurd to refer the shrill or nasal voices of many Americans to the effect of climate; as well might the same reason be given for the sharp *a* of the Pennsylvanian or the the lost *r* of the Virginian. Nasal voices are very common in some parts of England, but the educated classes there have inherited, through generations of culture, a deeper and more flexible larynx than ours. Vocal habits are first and most easily caught by children, and unlearned with most difficulty by men. Yet, certainly, the voice being next to the brain the vehicle of the orator's power, it should be forged, and shaped, and tempered with the same patience and craft as the chieftain's sword. We are glad that this subject is at last forcing itself upon the attention of the Faculties of our Colleges. There will probably be some difficulty for awhile to come in finding competent instructors. The men who possess finely developed voices, and are thus able to give precept and example together, are rarely willing to relapse into pedagogues. President Gilman, of the Johns Hopkins University, we understand, intends to establish a chair of Reading and Speaking, as indispensable to a thoroughly organized institution of learning. But the same course ought to be adopted by every Normal School in the country, in order to reach the great multitude of young pupils. Although a great deal of what the latter receive is worn off by careless home habits, some little always sticks; and the poor boy or girl who approaches the door of society later in life will find it beset with fewer terrors. Even well pronounced and agreeably modulated ignorance is much more tolerable than when it reaches us through the nose and accompanied by double negatives.—*N. Y. Tribune.*

ANY number of wrongs cannot justify one.

NOTES FROM DIESTERWEG.

[Translated by V. SCHEER.]

All development begins in a small point, in a minimum, and proceeds to a maximum. The child possesses innate faculties (gifts, not ideas), but they are undeveloped. What is the nature of these innate gifts in the minimum? This question is not so easily answered; for these gifts do not become observable until they have been operated on. Hence it comes to pass that views differ so widely, and that it is difficult to establish principles on this subject; which principles shall not merely be explanations of words, but definitions of facts. To this, for example, belongs the question: "Whether the natural gifts are originally the same or not." We compare the innate gifts in this early stage with the germ of the plant. The germ indeed contains the plant complete, yet undeveloped. But as there is a law of development in this case, so there is a law of development of the innate faculties of the human kind. This law is a genetic one. As from the germs of the plant only that definite plant can grow, so likewise from the innate faculties of the human kind can only grow the human.

But how are these innate faculties developed? This development is one that is continuous without interruption, harmonic, entire, all-sided; it reaches a certain maximum, which cannot be definitely stated for the individual, although it may perhaps be determined for the human kind. The first assertion was that the development of the innate faculties must be continuous, uninterrupted. This cannot be otherwise, for the argument treats of the development of an organic being. It is true, there *seem* frequent exceptions to this, but the constant, progressive development only escapes our observation. (Joints show the development and growth of the plant). All *constants* are divisible ad infinitum; the same holds good also here. The development of the innate faculties is of a continuous nature, but only the most prominent points arrest our attention.

Another important point may be gained in behalf of our subject, instruction, if we compare the development of the innate faculties, or in general, the development of the organic with the development and formation of the inorganic. The former grows and takes form from within, the latter from without. By the former method the innate faculties are developed. Hence, we must give a negative answer to the question: "Can human culture be imparted or communicated." Culture from without is impossible. Nothing, indeed, can be communicated to the mind, not even knowledge; the mind itself must master that which is offered to it; absorb, assimilate, make it its own. Hence, the principle to educate to self-activity is of so great importance. The art of instruction is not the art of communication; it is the art of generation and stimulation. By instruction thought is to be generated in the soul of the instructed.

The development of the innate faculties must also be an harmonic one. Instruction must, therefore, further this harmonic development. In every individual the innate faculties exist in a definite proportion; care must be taken for the development of all these innate faculties, but the development must be in accordance with this fundamental relation. This is an harmonic development. In this wise the education of the single individual is a one-sided one in comparison to the totality in which are found developed the innate faculties of the human kind in full measure. Of course the culture resulting from such a development of the innate faculties will find many an obstacle in its way, and we must say, the more the different occupations of individuals depart and separate from each other, the more one-sided is the development of innate faculties of the single individual. Universality, however, is restored in the totality of all the individuals of the human race.

THE milk of human kindness will sour in time.

FIRST LESSONS IN BOTANY.

BY GEORGE L. SMITH.

VIII.—*Petunia and Morning Glory.*

T.—How very numerous the wild flowers have been this summer. I thought they must have blossomed for my special benefit, just because I was studying botany, for I had passed through the same woods and crossed the same fields a great many times before, and at all seasons of the year, but had never seen them. I must confess, however, that I was astonished and a little ashamed to find that these same flowers had been described by botanists long ago, and had bloomed regularly in the same places for many years. And even now, that I have analyzed and pressed upwards of 400 different kinds found in the vicinity of Baltimore, I learn that this is only about one-half of what others have found, and am glad to know that there is so much pleasure in store for me.

A very common flower that we have not analyzed together is the *Morning Glory*. Perhaps we can learn something from it.

P.—It is just like the *Petunia*.

T.—I thought you would say so, and have brought both, so that we can compare them. Let us commence with the peduncle. Describe it.

P.—There are several short peduncles which start from nearly the same point.

T.—Do you see that these peduncles are attached to a longer peduncle?

P.—I thought that was a part of the stem.

T.—No! it is really *the* peduncle, because it starts from the axil of a leaf and has no leaves on it. The smaller peduncles in such cases are called *pedicels*. Now compare a pedicel of the morning glory with a peduncle of the petunia.

P.—It is pubescent, but the hairs are very much shorter and not so thick, as on the petunia. I can hardly see them except with my magnifying glass.

T.—Are the calyxes similar?

P.—No! it is polysepalous in the morning glory and three of the sepals are larger than the other two, while in the petunia the sepals, which are all of about the same size, are joined, part of the way up, and the divisions between them marked by lines of white hairs. Besides, the sepals of the morning glory have hairs only on the lower parts, and they are quite stiff and bristly.

T.—When the hairs on any part of a flower are bristly like these, that part is said to be *hispid*. So in the morning glory the lower part of the calyx is hispid. How do the corollas compare?

P.—The corolla is salverform.

T.—I fear that if you tried to carry anything on such a salver it would slide or roll down into the tube, it is not flat enough on top. Suppose, however, the pistil was a little longer and you let the flower hang down, holding it by the peduncle, what would it resemble?

P.—A bell.

T.—Yes, it is bell-shaped, and botanists call it *campanulate*. You will notice how much more gradually the tube enlarges to form the margin in this than in the petunia. Now mention briefly some other points in which the morning glory differs from the petunia.

P.—1. The corolla has star-shaped stripes of a lighter color on the back.

2. The margins of the petals are heart-shaped instead of bracket-shaped.

3. The stamens are all of different lengths with straight filaments, the lower parts of which are attached to the corolla and surrounded by a tuft of white hairs.

4. The anthers are attached to the side of the filament.

5. The stigma is not green or sticky.

T.—Look at the stigma with your microscopes and describe it.

P.—It is made up of three parts nicely puckered and drawn together on the end of the style.

T.—Stigmas like these, as well as those of petunias, are called *capitate*, because they form little heads to the styles like the heads of some canes. How many cells in the ovary of each flower?

P.—There are three cells, each containing two ovules, in the morning glory, and two cells, each containing a great number of ovules, in the petunia.

T.—Now notice the stem. How does it differ from that of the petunia?

P.—It is hispid; very long and winds around things, while that of the petunia is pubescent, comparatively straight and does not grow so long.

T.—The stem of the morning glory is hispid, but the hairs turn back toward the root. It is supported by twining or twisting itself around some slender branch or a cord placed for that purpose, and you may observe that the twist is always in the same direction.

RACE EDUCATION DEFINED.

[From "Deterioration and Race Education" by SAMUEL ROYCE.]

Education to be hereditary must be something different from a mere cramming process. True education is the constitutional improvement of the whole man. Man, and not scholarship, is the aim of education. The constitutional improvement of man is effected by the training of the body, the senses and the functions of the brain to the highest degree of power and active use.

This training must take place in the formative period of earliest infancy, in order to improve the very organization, that it may work rightly and automatically through life.

Education must be functional and affect the organization of man, if it is to be hereditary.

Education, when hereditary, is not lost with the individual, but is what it ought to be—Race Education.

Education, when so constituted as to become hereditary in its effects, forms a truly National Education.

An education that affects the constitution of man through habitual training in the formative period of earliest infancy, forms man's character; and if the training is of the right sort, it makes him a good man; and a like training of the whole people forms a noble national character.

The practical training of the eye, the ear, the hand, the intellect and the will in the formative period of earliest infancy makes an effective, industrious individual, and a like general training renders a nation industrious, inventive and prosperous. Our bookish education keeps us from observing and using our senses with accuracy—a power of universal usefulness, and yet so rare.

The present bringing up, called by a misnomer, education, neglecting the child in the formative, and, therefore, most susceptible and assimilative period of its earliest infancy, fails to form its character or to develop its powers; it fills the world with conceptions lacking execution, aspirations unsatisfied, promises unfulfilled, beautiful theories and good practice, and, hence the conflict between the ideal and the real, which constitutes the contradiction and the misery of the times.

Education must put the child to work; for by work man is perfected. And what he does not achieve, he never comprehends; and, hence, the barrenness of the word-learning of the schools. It profits but little the individual, and none at all the race or nation.

Habit and heredity, judiciously controlled, ameliorate man; left to themselves they deteriorate him.

We have to this day neglected to aim at the cumulative effect of education through the principle of heredity, and have failed to secure as great an abundance of good and wise men, inventors, statesmen and sages as we might, while the vicious have ever, by the power of this principle, spread themselves through generations, until they threaten to curse the nation with a brood of criminals, paupers and imbeciles.

There is something of the infinite in moral obligation; and our duty toward the present, to be rightly performed, must take in the remotest future. The solidarity of mankind

extends through all time as through all space, or as far as man's existence spreads. Only when based upon the principle of heredity we shall educate man for the future of the race, will the individual be blessed in his present relations; while an education that ignores the future of the race sacrifices likewise the true interests of the individual and of the present, which are inseparably linked to the whole of humanity.

Only when national infant schools will watch over, cultivate and direct the growth of the bodies and souls of the dear little ones of the nation; and the future mothers of the race, instead of being unsexed in factories, will be trained in these national schools for their truly noble work in the nursery, will our homes be co-workers with our schools, and people and teachers will form one great educational association, joining heart, head and hand in the great national work of rearing up the rising generation.

Only when the principle of heredity will be made the foundation of a system—which will be the education of the race and the nation as well as of the individual—will men of enlarged capacities of head and heart consecrate themselves to the work of education, which under their hands will no more be a thoughtless routine, but science, life and practice. There was a heathen age, when it was the ambition of the great and the wise to guide and teach the young, who grew up to men worthy of their teachers, who were sages; that time must and will come again, and then humanity will be blessed.

Nothing but a thorough, consistent and well directed race education will free the masses from the blight of pauperism, madness and crime, and remove from us the disorganizing selfishness and incapacity for good that sadden us on every side.

Education at public expense, directed by the nation, must be national, securing the perpetuity of the commonwealth and the well-being of the masses, and that can only be achieved by hereditary race education, which is improving the quality and increasing the energy of every God-given power of the body and soul of man.

CONDENSED DIRECTIONS FOR TEACHING ARITHMETIC.

BY JOHN SWETT.

1. Train beginners from five to six years of age on combinations of numbers, not exceeding ten, in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Begin with *counters*, such as small blocks of wood, shells, corn, beans, or pebbles, and use them for two or three months, until the pupils can make the combinations without the aid of objects. [Grube Method.]

2. After from three to six months, extend the combinations to 20.

3. Teach figures, and the forms of written arithmetic, in connection with the mental work.

4. Children under ten years of age should be limited to operations in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, in order to secure accuracy and readiness. Problems and analysis come properly when the reasoning faculties are more developed.

5. If a text-book is used by the pupils, omit all puzzling and complicated problems, and all questions involving large numbers.

6. After the first year, teach decimals in connection with whole numbers, at least to the extent of adding and subtracting, and of multiplying and dividing them by whole numbers. Limit: first step, *tenths*; second, *hundredths*; third, *thousandths*.

7. In the second and third years, teach common fractions, limited mainly to *halves*, *thirds*, *fourths*, etc., to *twelfths*. Illustrate simple operations in the four rules by means of apples, crayons, or lines upon the blackboard.

8. Use the blackboard yourself for the purpose of giving explanations or models of methods.

9. Drill your pupils at the board, sending up one-half the class while the other half is engaged in slate work. Give both divisions the same exercises, and insist on good figures and neat work.

10. Give frequent drills in addition, the operation in which more mistakes are made than in any other.

11. Fix every new operation, or principle, by long-continued and frequently-repeated drill.

12. Do not take more than one hour a day for arithmetic.

13. Depend mainly upon slate and blackboard drill in school, rather than upon problems to be worked at home.

14. Seldom assign home-lessons in arithmetic.

15. Accuracy is vastly more important than rapidity.

16. Mental operations should, in general, precede written arithmetic. The two should be taken together.

17. The essential operations in arithmetic, which all pupils should understand, are the four rules, common and decimal fractions, the tables of weights and measures, and interest. All the rest of the text-book may be omitted without much loss by all but high-school pupils.

18. A great deal that passes in school books under the name of arithmetic consists largely of schoolmasters' exercises, of neither practical nor disciplinary value.--*National Journal of Education*.

A BAD school, like a bad family, is known by the amount of flogging in it. In proportion as the rod is unknown, perfection of discipline may be inferred, and good order is the main requisite for rapid progress in knowledge. A teacher who has to spend the most of his time in beating boys is soon good for nothing else, as he loses the temper and habits of an instructor. Such a person ought to be put out of school at once, since he will be violent and inefficient whether the rod be taken away from him or not. By selecting men and women possessed of the natural tact, dignity, and force of character required to impress and control a number of children of every sort, brought together in one enormous family, the school commissioners will do more to abolish corporal punishment than by passing a hundred rules prohibiting it. Such teachers will be able to get along without using the rod, and the sentiment of our times will insist upon having such teachers, since the days of education by rulers, canes, leather-straps and rawhides, belong to the era when they flogged sailors in the navy, and considered Solomon literally the wisest man that ever lived.—*N. Y. World*.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

FROM the city and from all parts of the State, from which we have heard, the school news is most encouraging.

Allegany.—The enrollment of first and second grade pupils is greater than ever before. In some towns it has been found necessary to establish adjunct schools for the accommodation of these pupils. Four new houses of small dimensions have been built in the lower part of the county, and two larger houses in the mining region. It is proposed, also, to build a new school house in Cumberland to seat 500 pupils.

Anne Arundel.—The schools opened in September with the best of prospects for a good year's work. The teachers have suffered heretofore from the failure of the County Commissioners to pay over the school taxes promptly, but by the energy of the Examiner, seconded by the school board, it is hoped that this source of embarrassment will be removed. Miss Bishop, who so long and so ably presided over the Female High School at Annapolis, has sent in her resignation. We are sorry to part with her, but she has earned her exemption by patient, arduous and eminently successful service in the public schools. Our loss, we suppose, will be somebody's gain; nevertheless we shall feel the loss deeply.

Baltimore.—The schools opened on the second of September with an apparent increase. Our correspondent has "lots of school news that would make interesting reading, but has not the time to put it together." We sympathize with him—still we hanker after the "lots of news."

Baltimore City has opened with full schools in all departments. The folly and absurdity of the clamor against the High Schools are evinced by the fact that the City College and the two Female High Schools have more pupils than in any previous year. The applicants for places in the State Normal School from the city were three times the number of available vacancies. Many of the rooms in the primary schools are crowded beyond the limits of prudence; and most of the grammar schools open with increased numbers. The people have not lost faith in public schools, and it is the people who sustain the schools with their money as well as their patronage. The people know what they need better than the politicians of the Montgomery Blair stamp.

Caroline.—The schools will open in October. The county appropriation is less than usual. The County Commissioners are building an iron bridge over the Choptank; and in order to get the money the schools must be made to suffer. To bridge the river, they must abridge the school term. The people do not quite agree with their financial agents. They want a bridge, but they want their schools, too.

Carroll.—A County Institute was held in Westminster during the first week in September. Over one hundred teachers were present.

Western Maryland College and the school at New Windsor opened this year with brighter prospects than ever. Much of the success of these higher schools is owing to the impetus given to the cause of education by the public schools.

A new school house, to contain four large rooms, is in course of erection in Manchester, a village containing about two hundred children of school age. It will have a grammar school and three graded primaries.

The public schools, generally, in this county have opened with larger numbers than usual.

The persistence of most teachers in properly grading and classifying their schools has been attended with so many favorable results that the people generally are placing a higher value than formerly on their public school system; and the consequence is that more of the better classes of pupils are sent to the public schools, and that the select schools, though some of them are of high merit, are less patronized.

The little village of Mount Vernon (formerly Jewsbury), has recently become deeply interested in public school education. With the very limited means in the hands of the School Board, the members had not been able to take measures to lay off a new school district and build a house at Mount Vernon; but the people of the place and neighborhood, a short time since, nobly took the matter in hand, and with means supplied by themselves, they have built of brick, in a beautiful location, an admirable school house 12 by 30 feet, with ceiling 12 feet high in the clear.

To leave nothing undone to ensure success, the trustees, after much careful inquiry, have been so fortunate as to secure the services as teacher of Miss Ziddie Duvall, a very efficient young lady, who, after two or three years' service has made for herself a high reputation in Carroll county.

On Saturday last, after a few invitations had been sent out, quite a number of villagers, nearly crowding the room with men, women and children, assembled to welcome their teacher and open the new house with appropriate ceremonies; and it is doubtful whether as much interest was not felt in the opening of the Mount Vernon public school, in that little country village, as is often witnessed on much more pretentious occasions.

The ceremonies were opened with prayer by the Rev. W. A. Koontz, of New Windsor, who, on the invitation of the trustees, delivered an able and highly appropriate address, deservedly complimentary to the builders, and much of it directed to the teacher, the pupils, the trustees, and particularly to the parents of the children, showing in forcible terms how much can be done to sustain a school, and how a thoughtless word of undeserved disparagement might do untold mischief.

The County Examiner being present, and called on to say something encouraging, occupied a few minutes chiefly in support of the view expressed by Mr. Koontz, closing what he had to say with the public intro-

duction of the teacher, who gracefully arose, respectfully turned to the audience, and said that she would make her address to her pupils on Monday morning, embracing all proper occasions to pay her regards to the parents of the children and the friends of the school. The exercises were then closed with the benediction.

Cecil.—The schools opened on the 2d of September; the scholars wide awake, and the teachers a little more so. The Teachers' Association of the Sixth, Seventh and Eighth District met at Port Deposit on the 7th of September. Twenty-four members were present. Officers were elected for the ensuing year: F. S. Everist, President; J. L. Crothers, Vice President; J. W. C. Hanna, Secretary. After some interesting literary exercises the question, "Should education be made compulsory by law?" was debated by Messrs. Squier, Nichols, Tanner and Hanna.

Harford.—The first week of the school year was very properly devoted to a Teachers' Institute. It is the best week of the year for that purpose, the teachers being fresh after their long vacation, and having an opportunity to carry the lessons of the Institute directly into the school room. Sixty-eight teachers were present at the opening. The Institute was conducted by the County Examiner, Mr. William H. Harlan, with valuable aid from Professor Baird, of Bel-Air; Professor Jackson, of Havre de Grace, and a number of other teachers. The usual round of subjects was discussed with much spirit, and a variety of new and useful topics introduced. We are pleased to notice a remark by the Examiner that "the schools have vastly improved with regard to grading during the past year, and he hoped for continued improvement."

Washington.—The number of pupils enrolled during the year ending July 3, 1878, was 8,565, of whom 7,993 were white and 572 colored. The average attendance was 5,011. In the first grade, 1,494; second, 1,298; third, 1,322; fourth, 1,406; fifth, 1,452; above sixth, 551. Studying Book-keeping, 134; Algebra, 379; Natural Philosophy, 208; English Literature, 95; Geometry, 124; Physiology, 192; Latin, 133; Greek, 20; German, 23. Number of teachers 174. Seven new school houses were built during the year.

All the schools in the county opened on the second of September with 176 teachers and a fair attendance of pupils. Seven new houses are in course of construction, and will be completed next week. Two of them will have two rooms each.

Wicomico.—Schools will open on Monday, Sept. 30th. The annual examination of teachers took place in the second week of September. Twenty-three teachers were examined in the usual second grade studies, orthography, reading, writing, geography, grammar, History of the

United States, physiology and elementary geometry. Seventeen passed, and the remainder were recommended to try again—next year.

Worcester.—Schools will open on the first of October, after three months' vacation. Efficient teachers have been secured. At a recent examination, twenty-five candidates presented themselves, and sixteen of them succeeded in obtaining certificates. Edward D. Martin takes charge of the Berlin High School; Richard K. Wimbrough has been appointed to the High School at Snow Hill, and Dr. Sidney W. Handy to the High School at Pocomoke City. We are gratified to learn that Dr. John P. R. Gillis, the active and popular President of the School Board has recovered the use of his eyes; the operation performed by Dr. Murdoch, of Baltimore, having proved entirely successful.

BOOK NOTICES.

HART'S ELEMENTARY GRAMMAR 128 pages, 12mo. Philadelphia, Eldredge & Brother.

Teachers of the olden time who glance into this little book will be reminded of the "Lindley Murray" of their youthful days; and those who yearn after a modern edition of "Lindley Murray" with improvements will have their longing satisfied by "Hart's Elementary." It breathes the same spirit as the original, but that spirit has a better environment of flesh, and the body is clothed neatly and almost elegantly. In other words, the old style of grammar for children is presented in a most attractive shape as regards expression, arrangement and typography.

THE YEAR-BOOK OF EDUCATION FOR 1878. Edited by Henry Kiddle, Superintendent, and Alexander J. Schem, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City. 420 pp. 8vo. New York: E. Steiger.

The primary object is to supply a supplement to the *Cyclopedia of Education*. In addition, the Year-Book gives the materials for judging the amount of progress made in the different departments of education from time to time. Among the subjects receiving special attention are the co-education of the sexes, compulsory school attendance, denominational schools, social economy, pedagogic museums, the metric system and school savings banks. The value of the volume is much increased by a full list of the Educational Institutions of the country, and of educational publications, together with a "classified descriptive catalogue of American, British, German, French and other foreign publication on education and general philology."

APPLETON'S SCHOOL READERS, FIRST, SECOND, THIRD AND FOURTH. By William T. Harris, Andrew J. Rickoff and Mark Bailey.

The old adage, "Too many cooks spoil the broth," has not been verified in this instance. The cooks are more than the usual number, but the broth is better than usual. Indeed, it is hardly possible to present to the public a better exhibit of the latest results of pedagogy, typography, and decorative art applied to bookmaking, than is supplied by these Readers. An old salt, like the writer of this notice, might object that, perhaps, there was too much science, too perfect a system of diacritic marks for children; but his youngest born, enchanted with the illustrations, would put an end to criticism with "Bother the marks, papa, if you don't like them, let them alone—turn over another page, and let us see the pictures."

PRIMER OF DESIGN. By Charles A. Barry, Supervisor of Drawing, Public Schools, Boston, Mass. 130 pp., with illustrations. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

A book prepared with great care, and the best we have seen on the subject. It is especially valuable to the drawing teacher who wishes to adopt sound principles in designing. The book is fully illustrated with cuts not only showing how to conventionalize natural objects around us, and combine them into beautiful designs, but pointing out defects, and thereby enabling the teacher to correct designs which to an uneducated eye might appear perfect. It gives a number of very plain and definite rules for designing, and shows how to apply them.

HAND-BOOK OF PUNCTUATION WITH INSTRUCTIONS FOR CAPITALIZATION, LETTER-WRITING AND PROOF-READING. By W. J. Cocker. 127 pp. 24mo. New York, A. S. Barnes & Co. Price 60 cents.

The author's object is: "1. To state such general rules as are recognized by most writers of good English. 2. To illustrate these rules by examples taken from the best English classics. 3. To give some of the differences in usage that exist even among the best of writers."

THE MAGAZINE OF AMERICAN HISTORY, with Notes and Queries. Edited by John Austin Stevens, October, 1878.

This is a very interesting number of a very interesting periodical. It contains a portrait of Sam Houston, and a very readable article on the Texas Revolution. Among the "Original Documents" now for the first time printed are "Seven Letters of the American Revolution."

HARVEY'S GRADED SCHOOL SPELLER. 152 pp., 12mo. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

The exact pronunciation of every word is indicated by a system of diacritical marks, the same as used in Webster's Unabridged. If this should result in nothing more than accustoming the learner to such contrivances, and enabling him to use the Dictionary properly, even this would be a great advantage; for many pupils pass out of school without having learned how to ascertain the pronunciation of a word from the Dictionary. Great prominence is deservedly given in the "Graded Speller" to the formation of words; the several lessons on this subject form a very good introduction to systematic etymology. The list of "miscellaneous words" in the last lessons is well selected, in the main; but it would be nothing the worse if a number of words had been omitted, such as: *oestrum*, *rouleau*, *faubourg*, *waywode*, *cuproid*, *orfrays*, *marabou*, *hypocaust*, *chiliarch*, *aiguillette*, *seigneurial*, *amygdaloid*, *apteryx*, *phalanstery*, *pantechnicon*, *archeopteryx*, *pantisocracy*, *succedaneous*.

TEACHERS' MANUAL FOR FREE-HAND DRAWING IN INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS. By Prof. Walter Smith, State Director of Art Education for Massachusetts. Boston, L. Prang & Co.

With this Manual in his hand, and the Drawing Books connected with it in the hands of his pupils, any intelligent teacher can conduct a class successfully through the mysteries of elementary drawing. He cannot make them all (nor perhaps any of them) artists, any more than he can make his readers orators, or his singers great musicians. But he can teach the elements of drawing just as successfully, both as regards the extent of the information given and the number of pupils to whom it is given, as he can teach the elements of reading, arithmetic and geometry. And even this comparatively small amount of art-knowledge generally diffused among the people will be of incalculable value to them in their every day industrial work.

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING. By James Jöhonnot. 395 pp. 12mo. New York, D. Appleton & Co.

An admirable text-book for Normal Schools and good reading for every one interested in education, as parent, school director, or teacher. Intending to quote pretty largely from it hereafter, we merely mention at present the subjects of some of the leading chapters: The Mental Powers; Courses of Instruction; Object Teaching; Pestalozzi; Fröbel and the Kindergarten; Physical Culture; Æsthetic Culture; Moral Culture; Graded Courses of Study; Country Schools and their Organization.

THE ELEMENTS OF RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION. By David J. Hill, A. M.
New York : Sheldon & Company.

" The only way to acquire skill in writing is by actual practice in the various processes of the art. This view has given shape to the treatment of composition in this book. The learner is conducted, step by step, through the entire work of writing a composition, including the selection of a subject, the accumulation of materials, the arrangement of materials, the choice of words, the construction of sentences, the use of figures, the variation of expression, the preparation of the manuscript, the criticism of the completed production, and the classification of it as a specific form of composition."

THE CHART PRIMER; or, *First Steps in Reading*. By Lewis B. Monroe
64 pp. Square 12mo. Philadelphia, Cowperthwaite & Co.

A very neat little Primer, scientifically arranged, and intended to be used in connection with large charts containing the same text. But in a first reading-book, fully up to the highest standard of such books, what are we to make of such a " Note " as this: " The word *what* is pronounced *hwot*, the *a* having the sound of *o*. It may thus be analyzed, or taught by sight, as a whole." For whose information is this printed? For the pupil's? He can't read it. For the teacher's? He surely knew all about it before he commenced to teach.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. Prepared especially for Schools, by
John Clark Redpath, A. M. 378 pp. Cincinnati : Jones Brothers & Co.

The object of the author has been to give an accurate and spirited narrative of the principal events in the history of the United States, to present a clear and systematic arrangement of the several subjects, and to illustrate the text by charts, maps and drawings. In all this he has been quite successful. The style is attractive, the arrangement clear, and the illustrations are appropriate and ample. The omission of the usual " questions for examination " is a commendable feature ; the " recapitulation " at the end of every chapter is much better than the stereotyped " questions."

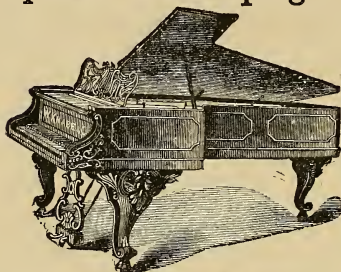
TOPICAL COURSE OF STUDY. Part I for Elementary Schools ; Part II for High Schools. By R. C. Stone. 115 pp. 24mo. New York, A. S. Barnes & Co. Price 50 cents.

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THE
MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

DEVOTED TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION.

Vol. V. NOVEMBER, 1878. No. 2.

REPLY TO THE ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY PROF. PHIL. M. LEAKIN.

At the late meeting of the State Teachers' Association, his Honor the Mayor, having addressed the Association and welcomed them to the city in a few brief, but fitting and kindly sentences, Professor Leakin replied as follows :

Mayor Latrobe :

The Maryland State Teachers' Association has heard with emotions of pleasure the words of encouragement that have fallen from your Honor in the cordial greeting you have uttered. Engaged in a work essential to the well-being of the public, we hail with joy the recognition of its importance by the chieftains of our commonwealth. When the statesmen of the community are imbued with a proper sense of the exceeding importance of Education to the welfare of the masses, and the stability of our institutions, the prospects of the future are bright, and the progress of the State in all its interests, material and moral as well as intellectual, is well nigh assured. Since the corner-stones of the Republic are the intelligence

and morality of the people, and since the permanently successful leaders in our country are those who reflect as well as guide the better sense of the community, it augurs well for the social status of our bright and beautiful metropolis that its public men manifest such interest, and the citizens generally take such pride in the prosperity and progress of its public schools.

In addition to the interest which all should feel in the general welfare, the members of this association have a professional concern in all that is calculated to promote the cause of Education—as priests or ministers in the Temple of Learning; as a tribe set apart and consecrated to this public service—we can not be indifferent to anything that affects our high calling. You will pardon me if, in behalf of this body, I seem to magnify our office, in reply to the welcome which you have extended to our association. As in the service of the ancient Temple, there were those who sought to be put into the Priests' office, that they might have a piece of bread, I am aware that there are those to whom the emoluments of the Teacher are the chief inducement to pursue this calling. Their necessities must be great, and their occupation a tiresome drudgery. It is to be regretted, indeed, that many whose vocation and delight is teaching, are forced from our ranks by the same imperious necessity. It is to be hoped that the day will soon come when those who are capable will find within our profession such ample support that they may give to Education the labor and attention of their lives. But to the true Teacher there are other and sweeter rewards. Success in his vocation is the first of these, and next the affection of his pupils, the friendship of their parents, and the respect and appreciation of the community. No profession has so little control of its career and membership as our own. The rules of practice of Law, Medicine and Theology are, for the most part, under the jurisdiction of Lawyers, Doctors and Divines. The Teacher is often examined, appointed, condemned and dismissed by those who make no pretensions to learning, and have little or no experimental knowledge of the qualifications or merits of the parties

concerned. Whatever else a man may be ignorant of, it is rare to find an individual who thinks he does not know how a school should be taught. I am convinced that if the doors of our profession were guarded by ourselves, the public would find a better guarantee of fitness in their Teachers than they now possess. *Esprit de corps* would be stimulated, technical information be wider spread, and the sum of professional knowledge vastly increased. But while we are thus defenseless, so far as professional walls and doors are concerned, our position has its compensating advantages from the fact that we are not a class apart, but of and with the masses of the people. The authority which we have over the children, the affectionate regard of the best of them, the intimate confidential relations into which we are brought with their parents, give us an influence which, if wielded in unision for a good purpose, would give us more extensive power in good society than any other class of men exerts. The men whom the world delights to honor, whose names have filled the trump of fame for centuries, are those who were distinguished for their love of learning, their friendship for scholars, their patronage of schools and founding of colleges. The golden age of Greece, the time of Pericles, of Rome under Augustus, of Louis XIV in France, of Alfred the Great, and Elizabeth of England, owe their celebrity mainly to the scholars who have handed down their fame in song and story.

The men of action may afford material, but the men of thought are the architects of History, and whether this stone or that shall occupy the place of honor, depends upon their will. In our own country, the wants of the scholars, as formulated by the Teachers, modify the facts of history, giving prominence to this event, and passing over that. Why should everybody know about the Pilgrims' Landing, and the Boston Tea Party, and be so ignorant of the particulars of the landing of the *Ark* and *Dove*, and the burning of the *Peggy Stewart*, but that New England school men wrote the school books from which we are obliged to learn the history of our country.

Not only History which treats of larger facts, but tradition, not powerful as of yore, but yet wielding extensive influence, is mainly in the hands of those who teach the children; and local fame is extended and handed down which otherwise would perish. Like the Bards and Minstrels of the Olden Time, the Teacher is welcome in all society, and the sons and daughters of the present generation learn from them the worthy deeds of their ancestors. The Teacher has ability, therefore, to return the favors of the men of power in that way which they prize often most of all.

The friend of schools and scholars may, like Mæcenas, become immortalized. Shrewd, money-making men like Hopkins, or Girard, or Drew; philanthropic men of wealth like McDonough, McKim, or Peabody, have founded institutions of learning or benevolence, and their memory will be handed down when these and all their other deeds would else have passed away into oblivion. The man who stretches forth his hand to save or elevate our Alma Mater, is cherished in the hearts of all her loyal sons, while he who strikes a blow at her will seldom ever, in our estimation, wipe out the foul dishonor.

"The true Teacher does not find his vocation drudgery. As the chemist, with his old retorts and crucibles, elaborates new facts in nature, so the Instructor, with his old books and facts, is building up new characters."—*Raymond, of Vassar.*

When we look upon the History of the World, we find nation after nation taking the highest stand, each seeming, like the Stone of Sisypheus, to roll down as soon as, with infinite labor, it has reached the summit. In almost every case its fall has been accompanied by a decline in learning. As we, in these United States, stand among the first of nations, let us see to it that this shall not be our fault. To you and men like you, we look to uphold, defend and improve our system of Education. Receive, Sir, the thanks of the Association for your salutation. May your course be prosperous, and your life of usefulness be long.

DISCIPLINE.

BY PROF. A. REICHENBACH.

[Read before the State Teachers' Association, August, 1878.]

This subject is, indeed, a very old one ; but, notwithstanding this fact, it is still well worth investigating, because of its constant necessity in all successful teaching, as well as in all good management of any extensive business, and even in most of the affairs in the humblest walks of life.

Owing to the fact that everybody claims to know something about discipline, and that the subject has been so long and so ably discussed by the best educators in all civilized countries, I trust I am justified in craving your indulgence, with regard to the ideas I may present upon this subject. If I can succeed in recalling facts once more familiar to you than now, in presenting some old thoughts awakened by observation and tested by experience, and in increasing our zeal in the study of correct methods of discipline and diligently practicing them, I shall consider myself richly rewarded for all the labor bestowed upon the task.

The word discipline is used in so many senses that some definitions may not be out of place. Discipline means treatment suited to a learner ; development of the faculties by instruction and exercise. It also means, to act in accordance with established rules ; accustoming to systematic and regular action. A third use of the word is that of applying it to subjection to rule ; correction ; chastisement. The last use will be the leading one in this paper ; but the second is so intimately connected with the third that it can not be laid aside ; and even the first must not be entirely omitted.

The Greeks and Romans serve as excellent models of discipline, in many respects, even for the people of modern times. The physical training of the Greeks gave them "a sound mind in a sound body ;" and generations yet unborn may admire that ancient discipline of the body, with regard to exercise,

training, and cleanliness. To be a Spartan soldier was to be a giant in the battle-field.

The Roman family, which may be justly called the foundation of the Roman State, was a model for discipline. The laws governing the family were severe and rigidly executed. Talent and inclination, with such discipline, gave to the Romans the greatest lawyers of ancient times. In their schools of oratory the student was compelled to pay the strictest attention to the minutest details. Repetition, *repetition*, REPETITION, with renewed care and energy, was their motto; and the best modern disciplinarians for the stage have not found a better.

Good discipline has ever been essential to successful military movements. The well disciplined army, led by a resolute commander, conquers an enemy superior in numbers, but inferior in discipline, courage, and resolution. The eminent statesman has been disciplined in the intricacies of legislation and administration; and likewise in the meaning of political movements and their influence upon the private citizen. The business man needs a kind of discipline which intensifies his physical and mental activity; and cultivates honesty, economy, politeness, wonderful promptness, and systematic dealing.

These are examples of discipline which follows the teacher's drill in the school-room, and the latter ought to prepare the student for the former. The teacher should therefore study the essential elements of discipline in active life, and ought to be well acquainted with the modes of, and errors in, discipline antecedent to school life.

Where does discipline begin? It begins in the cradle. The mother there trains the child to be quiet, or may allow it to become her master, securing her prompt obedience at the moment the crying begins. If she continues thus to love her child, his will soon manifests itself as that of a victorious insubordinate. After a while, his father helps him to an excellent dish at the table, but the little boy wants something else first. The father remonstrates, and the son pushes away the plate. The father attempts to punish the son for such con-

duct, but the mother interferes, and complies with the wishes of her only child. After supper, the mother asks her beloved son to bring some wood; but, as he knows he is master, and prefers to play, he very impertinently says, "I won't do it," and runs out of the house. She follows him with a stick, but in vain; he is out of her reach. To make the matter worse, she threatens to whip him upon his return, besides locking him up for an hour or two. Of course he knows she will hardly do either, and returns when he pleases, ready to take advantage of any course she may pursue.

Now, this boy is sent to school, along with one who was taught to obey his parents and to respect all in authority. Their discipline brought the best results, because they agreed as to how their son should behave; they instructed him in his duties as he advanced in years and powers of comprehension; they judiciously but firmly required his prompt obedience; and they manifested their appreciation of his good behavior, thus encouraging him to love the right and shun the wrong. How widely different the training of these two boys! Yet the same teacher instructs and governs them both. Should he be just such a disciplinarian as the mother of the former boy, the latter will soon imitate the former; but if the teacher be a good one, what a task it will be to train a boy who is virtually his mother's master!

School discipline can not bring the best results, if the want of family discipline places some children almost beyond control. What a terrible evil is the encouragement at home to disobey the teacher at school, if he does not govern according to the notion of the parent! Almost as bad is the habit of parents who, either earnestly or at least jestingly, tell their children not to try to stand highest in school, since "very quiet boys seldom amount to much, and lively urchins often become the greatest men."

But the teacher can have little influence over family discipline, except sometimes by example in good school discipline. Theoretically, the family ought not to learn discipline from the

school, but rather the school from the family. "The more the school resembles the model family," says the eminent Dr. Daquet, "the more nearly will it attain the object for which it exists." True, the school demands certain restraints not needed in the family, but the fundamental ideas of discipline spring from the family; and, since the majority of our schools are taught by persons who know less about the realities of discipline than the parent, they should evidently begin the study of this important subject in the model family, and then continue with such modifications and additions as the school-room may require.

Now, let us see whether the condition of things in some schools shows that the teachers followed this plan. In the first place, the organization is so faulty that the teacher hardly knows what to begin with, in his daily work. The consequences are irregularity, disorder, strife, and contention. There is not even a starting point for discipline. Such teachers do not perceive the organization existing in a large and well regulated family. There is a commander, and there are those who obey. The one does this work, the other that, and each one a work suited to his age and ability. Certain things must be done by all, and at a specified time. There is law and order, peace and happiness.

Another class of teachers know how to organize, but carelessness caused delay. No plans were made to establish order in recitations and study periods, even after a preliminary organization had been effected. The result can be easily imagined.

Other teachers, again, are naturally careful, and know much about discipline, but lack executive ability. They become discouraged because they accomplish much less than is in their power to do. They plan well, write well, and speak well, but they fail to execute well almost everything under the head of discipline. They lack the wide-awake, excitable, self-propelling element; they are not electrified, and do not act when they see that they ought to be doing twice instead of speaking

once. Certain pupils will soon take advantage of such weakness. The first time they will obey with some hesitation ; the second time they will do something else before executing the command ; the third time they may not obey at all, and discipline is at an end.

Thus far, we find these teachers to be too slow in almost all their work. We can readily find such as go to the opposite extreme. Some of these are noted for their close watching. The love of independent action belongs to human nature, and close watching is a fruitless attempt to drive it out of the youthful mind. The result is, that children burst out into wrong-doing just as the attempt to stop the natural course of a spring forces it into a new channel which will lead the cold, sparkling water over the wheat and corn, to the ruin of both. There will soon be so much watching to do that little time will be left for anything else ; and the pupils soon find ways of deceiving and working iniquity in secret. The very act of watching stimulates the pupils to watching, and they generally outwatch the teacher ; hence, evil doing is continued, and the performance of duty discouraged. Finally, the pupils sink to the level of the so-called hero of a play, and exclaim with him :

" Au risque d'être pendu,
Mangeons du fruit défendu."

Others manifest their impatience in scolding, exposing and fault-finding. Children differ very much in disposition. What might prevent one from doing wrong, would make another worse than ever ; and what might barely affect one, would break the heart of another. A timid boy once started to school to a new teacher. The first morning, in sharpening his slate pencil, he placed one end on the top of the old-fashioned desk. The teacher, irritated, turned aside like a flash and roared out : " STOP THAT NOISE THERE, SIR ! " The boy was not only terribly frightened then, but he could not love that teacher during the whole year he taught there ; and even now his sympathies are not with that man. A word of caution,

kindly spoken, would not only have secured obedience, but lasting respect for the teacher.

But still worse are the consequences of habitually exposing every little fault, every trifling irregularity, and never giving a word of encouragement, however faithful the pupil may have been.

So far, it is clear that there have been departures from one or more of the following principles: (1.) Good discipline implies an aim at the same general object by both parents and teachers, and therefore demands their coöperation. (2.) There must be perfect familiarity with correct methods of discipline, and the natural dispositions of children. (3.) Discipline is a means, and not an end. (4.) Punishment for offenses presupposes instruction in good behavior. (5.) The initiatory step to good discipline is prompt and cheerful submission to authority. (6.) The teacher must persevere in firmness, excel in kindness, and set the example in self-control. (7.) All disciplinary rules and regulations must be based upon moral law.

A further departure from the second principle is the want of proper commands. The teacher may require too much or too little. His command may even be out of place altogether, just then; or a part is to be executed at once, and the rest at a time when the pupils may have forgotten all about it. Opportunities are thus offered to pupils to form the habit of disobeying, and the respect for the teacher will be gradually lost. The necessity for more frequent commands must inevitably follow, the result of which need not be mentioned.

The teacher must not only know how to command, but he must instruct pupils in the art of behaving, as well as in the branches of study. It is just as necessary to *teach how to behave*, as it is to teach how to read. Indeed, most pupils learn the latter more readily than the former. If I am ignorant of a law, how can I keep that law? And yet, if I break it, the State imposes the penalty regardless of my ignorance. But the teacher can not thus deal with children, because they are unable to learn all their duties without instruction.

The next step is prompt, implicit obedience. The teacher must see that the command is executed. He must not speak jestingly, nor angrily, but both countenance and tone should indicate kindness and yet irresistible determination. The pupil must understand that obeying, after a while, is a violation of a fundamental law; and a grave disobedience, therefore, precedes his final submission to authority. If the teacher insists upon prompt obedience from the beginning, the rest of the task becomes easy; if he fails here, difficulties will rapidly multiply. No pupil can excuse himself on account of ignorance, because explanations are given beforehand; and those who can not yet comprehend the *reasons* for obeying, must obey *because the teacher commands*.

Just here the teacher must not forget that discipline is a means to further the gaining of knowledge and the forming of character. Let him be sure to give children proper employment first, and then discipline becomes an aid in facilitating the labor, and in cultivating manliness.

In carrying forward the work of discipline, the teacher needs the help of rewards and punishments. These may consist of approbation and disapprobation, praise and censure, freedom and confinement, enjoyment and pain, gifts and fines, the highest honors of graduation and the lowest degradation by expulsion. As the skill of the teacher increases, the rewards and punishments decrease. Soon after the opening of school, there may be a case of refusal to obey. This must be promptly followed by proper correction; and, if the pupil should refuse to be corrected because he is old enough to offer resistance, he must be suspended at once. Let there be no delay in imposing this final penalty upon such an offender.

Some offenses require time for careful investigation. The hasty teacher may decide to punish before he knows the real nature of the offense, or some important causes which a little investigation would bring to light. The teacher is just as guilty for punishing an innocent pupil, as the municipal authority is for imposing a fine upon an innocent man.

Punishment should be inflicted according to the nature and age of the pupil, and the character of the offense. Home and school training also greatly modify the severity of punishment. Almost anything may become a punishment; and the teacher must exercise his judgment as to what punishment will correct a bad habit, or will prevent such a habit from being formed. A common error is to inflict the severest punishment adopted by the teacher, for a comparatively trifling offense. Should the pupil afterwards be guilty of a vicious act, the same punishment must follow, and thus wicked deeds become far more inviting than a slight neglect of duty.

Far more importance must be attached to the *certainly* than to the severity of punishment. Let there be ever so much severity, if there is occasional uncertainty, temptations are thereby offered to the tricky to violate the law, and then to make plans to escape punishment.

Much of what has been said of punishments, applies to rewards. The fewer the material rewards the better. The sooner the teacher is able to create such a thirst for knowledge, and to awaken such a desire for moral excellence, that pupils find their highest reward in the attainment of both, the more will he accomplish, and the easier will be his task.

But such a degree of excellence in discipline requires the very best intellectual, moral, and æsthetic culture. All are needed to place the pupil upon the highest plane of moral worth. The teacher must, therefore, base his discipline upon moral law. No amount of punishment merely for the sake of penalty, or forcing pupils to study, will attain the end in view. Let him go back to the eternal law of right. First the man, then the scholar. A good man, though illiterate, is a blessing to society and State; a bad man, though learned, is a curse to both. Such teaching will be a wonderful inducement for the pupil to strive after the noblest reward; and punishment, if ever necessary, may be reduced to a word of caution or withholding a smile, a kind of punishment so keenly felt when the finer feelings have been awakened.

Finally, the teacher should persevere in self-improvement, and in the study of the dispositions and home training of his pupils. Let him teach good behavior by example and precept. Let him be prompt without being hasty, firm but kind. Let him not forget to rank character first, knowledge second, and discipline third. Let discipline aid in the formation of character and in the acquirement of knowledge, and let knowledge aid character in blessing humanity.

A POINT IN TEACHING SPELLING.

BY A. G. BEECHER.

Spelling, considered as a distinct branch of learning, is of no practical account, except as it enables one to spell correctly in writing his own thoughts. Anyone who can spell correctly, or better, *write* correctly, the words that he uses is practically a good speller, though he may be able to spell few words besides. He who cannot spell well the words of his own vocabulary is a poor speller, and would still be such, even if he could spell all the other words of the language. To be able to spell words that we do not use nor even understand is of no advantage to us, except as it may enable us to shine at a spelling match, or win good marks for orthography at an examination of teachers.

Of the one hundred and fourteen thousand words of the English language, school instruction should touch only those that are in common, every-day use, those that make up the vocabulary of the man of average intelligence. Those words probably do not number more than six or seven thousand. The acquiring of this vocabulary extends over a period of at least the first sixteen years of life. At any particular age in this period there are more or less of those words that the pupil has learned to use that he has not learned to spell. If by

some means we could find out in each individual case just what words those are, and could put the pupil to learning them, we could reduce the time and work required to learn spelling to a *minimum*, and could very profitably put off learning the spelling of all other words until the pupil has grown up to them.

There is a very simple way in which this can be done. And while it is being done, the pupil may at the same time be learning to write and to read writing, to express his own thoughts in words correctly used, and to write them out in sentences correctly punctuated, with capitals used rightly and letters and words well formed. In short, the pupil may learn these unlearned words, and while doing it, get, even with a saving of time, that instruction and practice that will enable him to write a good letter.

The spelling lesson should be composed solely of words that the pupil uses in expressing his own thoughts. In learning this, he should be required to compose and write for each word of the lesson a sentence that shall contain that word. Suppose the first word of the lesson is *cook*; the pupil writes this upon his slate or paper, and then writes after it his sentence, *My mother can cook nice things*. In the same way the next word and its sentence is written; and the next to the end of the lesson. This can be carried out with perfect success if the lessons are not too long, and if they are composed at first of the simplest, every-day words, especially nouns that name familiar objects. At recitation each pupil is called to read one or more of the sentences he has written. This done, the teacher glances at the exercises, making in each case only one or two corrections or criticisms (too many at a time will not be heeded) as to spelling, penmanship, etc. The slates are now laid aside, the first word of the lesson is pronounced, and a pupil goes to the blackboard and writes from memory the word and an original sentence for it. The others watch the work, and when the sentence is written, all who have noticed an error raise the hand. The teacher then calls on one and another of them for corrections, and the writer carefully and

neatly corrects his work. When this has been done, the next word is pronounced, and another pupil writes, the exercise going on as before. In this writing of original sentences, the pupil will, of course, use only the words of his own vocabulary, and his knowledge of the spelling of those words will each day be brought to a practical test. He will constantly discover through his own writing, and by the blunders and corrections of each recitation, particular words of his own vocabulary that he cannot spell; and it will be seen that each time he misspells, his attention is called sharply to his error, and his interest and effort excited to avoid it in the future. Pupils take pride in writing upon the blackboard, and have an aversion to making a blunder there. When using these blackboard exercises, they become eager to profit by every correction, criticism and suggestion they may receive that relates to spelling, penmanship, use of capitals, punctuation or use of language. If the pupil learns spelling in this way from the first, his knowledge of it will easily keep pace with the growth of his own vocabulary; he will never form habits of misspelling through the frequent writing of words that he cannot spell; on the contrary, he will form a *firm habit of good spelling*, and when his spelling lessons are all over, he will be too critical in his writing to permit a word to be misspelled because it was not learned at school.

THE careful, consistent teacher encounters many drawbacks in the round of her daily duty, and it is often very hard to muster much enthusiasm over commonplace work. But it must be apparent to even a casual observer that the greater part of most lives is spent in what is at best mere drudgery. Ordinary action constitutes the arena of most human endeavor. It is the strong, steady pull, the happy gift of persistence that accomplishes the lasting results.

THE DIALECTS OF OUR COUNTRY.

BY THE LATE REV. N. C. BURT.

My attention was first called to the subject of our dialects on entering college at Princeton. The college gathered its students from various parts of the land; great varieties of speech were soon made evident. The recitation after dinner was called by some the *afternoon* recitation, by others the *evening* recitation. The hour at which it was held was, according to some, half-past three (*a* as in *far*); according to others, half-past three (*a* as in *fat*). It was heard, as some said, by a *chooter*; as others said, by a *tooter*: while according to others still, the person was neither the one nor the other of these, but rather something between them, namely a *tewtor*. The greatest variety of pronunciation was accorded to the little word *here*, in answering to the calling of the roll. One would say *here* (*r* full), another *heah*, another *heaw*, and another *yhur*. It soon became evident that such differences marked the different sections of the country from which the students came.

Those who have never traveled much are often unaware of the fact that they themselves are guilty of dialectic peculiarities in their talk, even when they have detected such peculiarities in others. A Southern lady, who had been sojourning North, was once entertaining a company of friends in Baltimore with specimens of New England peculiarities of speech, when a young man present, who was greatly amused, exclaimed, in perfect innocence: "That's a right smart heap of Yankee vulgarisms; where did you pick 'em up at?" Indeed, each section of our country, in turn, seems to regard itself as the standard of correct speaking, and is ready to laugh at everything differing from its own usages. Noah Webster makes New England the standard for the whole country (in the Introduction to his "Dictionary"). The Virginians and the South Carolinians have insisted, respectively, on the purity of their speech. Baltimoreans, as between the

North and the South, congratulate themselves on a happy exemption from the extremes of either. And those of the West, representing all portions of the land, and mingling all its dialects, may be ready to imagine that they have settled upon a happy average of speech. There is no surer mark of a man's provincial character than is to be found in his boast that his own locality is free from provincialisms.

Dialects are a necessary incident to a living language. Nothing human is more permanent on the one hand, nor more fluctuating on the other, than language. Language in its great essential attributes is as permanent as the human mind, to which it is most nearly and strongly related. Yet language in its essential forms is so flexible as to adapt itself to every variety of human condition, and does actually share with man in the vicissitudes of his changeful life. Let a people possess a perfectly uniform language, yet let them be so scattered over a country as to come under different conditions of life in its different parts, and corresponding variations in their language will speedily be exhibited.

There are two principal respects in which the knowledge of our dialects is of importance. The first is to be found in the connection subsisting between language and history. A knowledge of our dialects gives important hints in regard to the early colonization of our country, and in regard to the various movements of the different elements of our population from the first until now. The second respect in which a knowledge of our dialects is important is to be found in the connection subsisting between language and manner of life. Our different social customs and habits of thought find expression, and may be learned to some extent from our different forms of speech.

Let us see, then, first, how our history is illustrated by our dialects. Any one going into the neighborhood of New York City will speedily be made aware that the descendants of the Dutch are about him. He will discover it from the names of the people, from the names of localities in the country and

streets in the city, and from the use of Dutch words which he has not heard elsewhere. Among the people to whom he is introduced he will find an extraordinary number of *Vans*—Van Dyke, Van Bokkelm, Van Buren, Van Benshoven. The localities of *Hoboken* and *Staten Island*, and Cortlandt Street, in New York, and Schermerhorn Street, in Brooklyn, will constantly be heard. He will find himself making an excursion on the Harlem Railroad and crossing Spuyten Duyvel Creek. If it is winter, he will be eating *crullers*, or Dutch doughnuts; if it is summer, he will be resting after dinner in the cool *stoop* or porch of the Dutch farmhouse. And, when Sunday comes, it will surely be the dominie whom he will hear preach. Now, in the prevalence of such names and words may the existence of the descendants of the Dutch be detected and their movements be traced wherever they have gone in our land. By glancing at a map of our country we see the footprints of the French in the geographical names which are heard every day. Whence are the names Vincennes and Terre Haute in Indiana, and Fond du Lac and Prairie du Chien in the Northwest, but from the early French settlers? The single word *prairie*, in universal use to describe the immense natural meadows of the West, is a sufficient testimony that the French were the first of Europeans to explore the regions to which they belong. Why is it that Illinois is spelled with a final *s*, yet pronounced without it? Would not this indicate that the French were the first to make the acquaintance of the Illinois Indians and to write their name? We may infer with certainty the early establishment and permanent abode of a French population in *Missouri* from the geographical names. See the number of saints—St. Louis, St. Charles, St. Genevieve, and St. Joseph. See such other names as Des Moines on the north and Cape Girardeau on the south. In St. Louis they measure land not by *acres* but by *arpens*. The word was not unknown in England centuries ago, having come over at the Conquest and become somewhat current. Yet it has died out from our language, and now lives purely as a

French word. Much the same might be said of the marks of the French left in Louisiana and along the Gulf coast. The admixture of French is undoubtedly much larger in the people of the South than in those of the North. Not only was Louisiana a French territory, but the Huguenots were an important element of population on the Southeast coast, while of those emigrating to the South of English origin, the Norman element was more important than in the case of English emigration to the Northern colonies. And, accordingly, we find the Southern dialects assimilating to the peculiarities of the French language. This is seen particularly in the disposition to throw the accent of words *forward* at the South, and the opposite disposition at the North. Thus, at the South, the vulgar almost invariably say president' and testament' and excitement' and gentlemen'. So in words of two syllables, the accent is frequently placed on the last syllable, when at the North it would be placed on the first. The proper names, Sli'dell and Shu'mard and Cor'inth, are with them Slidell', Shumard', and Corinth'. The tendency North in such cases to draw the accent back when it probably is thrown forward, appears in whole classes of words. Thus in words of three syllables, persons are disposed to say il'lustrate for illus'trate, and op'ponent for oppo'nent, and in'quiry for inqui'ry. So in words of two syllables, there is a disposition to say re'cess for recess', and suc'cess for success', and sup'port for support'.

A more important variety of our speech is that which is of Scotch-Irish origin. The dialect of Pennsylvania is mainly Scotch-Irish. This is the more remarkable when we remember that the first settlers of Pennsylvania were largely of the class of English Quakers; and that subsequently the Germans have come in in almost overwhelming force. From Eastern Pennsylvania the Scotch-Irish spread abroad, going up the Cumberland Valley into Virginia, and crossing the Alleghanies both in Pennsylvania and Virginia. Their dialect is broadly defined, both as against the people of New York on the north and the people of old Virginia on the south and

east. No one at all acquainted with the Scotch-Irish dialect would be at a loss to identify the main peculiarities of speech exhibited in the region indicated. The Pennsylvanian says *strenth* and *lenth* for *strength* and *length*. He says *cannle*, and *hannle*, and *bunnle*, for *candle*, and *handle*, and *bundle*. He says "I want out" and "I want down" for "I want to get out" and "I want to get down." He says he will wait *on* you when he means that he will wait *for* you. If a person has had a slight sickness, and has speedily gotten over it, the Pennsylvanian will say of him that "he took sick," but it was only "a brash," and he soon got "quite better." The Pennsylvanian often uses *nor* for *than* after a comparative adjective. One thing is "more *nor* another," or "better *nor* another." So *till* is often substituted for *to* in the Pennsylvanian dialect. A horse comes *till* the stable, or a boy *till* the school house. The word *into* is much used for *in* in Pennsylvania. A horse will be said to have a white spot *into* his forehead, or a field to have a fine spring of water *into* it. The Pennsylvanians use the word *whenever* to signify "as soon as." Thus it will be said that, "*whenever* the carriage came, the lady got in." In Pennsylvania they "lift a collection," and "take up church," and ride to town "in a *machine*," with a *horse-beast* drawing the machine. Moreover, if the horse is a lively animal, what some call *skittish*, he will be called in Pennsylvania a *wild beast*. Now, all these peculiarities are evidently of Scotch-Irish origin, and by means of them, and others like them, we can trace in our country the movements and the influence of this element of population.

The Scotch-Irish, at an early period, came in large numbers to the Southern part of our country. We might infer that North Carolina was largely colonized by them from the prevalence of Presbyterianism in that State, and from the frequency with which Scotch-Irish names occur. Who that has been at all acquainted with the proceedings of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church has not become familiar with such names as McIver, and McQueen, and McNeil, and McIntyre,

of North Carolina? And, accordingly, we find Scotch-Irishisms marking the speech of North Carolina people. Those who have paid attention to the subject have remarked the general agreement of dialect between the Pennsylvanians and the North-Carolinians. Indeed, the Scotch-Irish element in the population of the South has been sufficient to impress some peculiarities of speech upon the whole people. Such is their frequent use of the auxiliary verb *will*, where correct English requires *shall*. Scottish writers freely use the auxiliary *will* in such phrases as this, "We *will* make the tour of the Continent this summer," or this, "We cannot foretell when we *will* die," where only simple futurism is meant to be asserted. Illustrations of this usage abound in Chalmers, in Guthrie, in Macduff. And so this usage is found all over our Southern country, and indeed the whole country, except New England and its dependents. In New England, where the Scotch-Irish element has made no impression, the English usage strictly prevails.

South of New England there is another usage which is probably due to Scotch-Irish, though it has an affinity for the French. It is the constant employment of the words "any place," and "some place," and "no place," instead of the words "anywhere," and "somewhere," and "nowhere." The child of Scotch-Irish and of Southern parents will exclaim concerning its lost toy, "I can't find it *any place!*" The child of New England parents will exclaim, "I can't find it *anywhere!*"

But, leaving Scotch-Irishisms, we find there are varieties of speech to be found of a more subtle kind still, and which have relation to history. For example, the people of New England generally speak in a sharper, shriller, and more nasal tone, than Southern people. The Southern people are more open-mouthed, and speak in a louder tone, rolling out their words. It is precisely in accordance with the general tendency at the South, whether due to it or not, to say *whar*, and *thar*, and *bar*, for *where*, and *there*, and *bear*. Professor Marsh accounts for this

difference from the influence of climate on the vocal organs. But, while this may account for it in part, must we not suppose that in part the difference existed before climatic influence had time to be felt? New England is essentially Puritan, while the rest of the country is a mixture of classes. And the Puritans in England were noted for their nasal twang and whining tone, and for these received unbounded ridicule from the Cavaliers. The difference would seem to look back beyond geographical position—to influences which, as history shows, governed the class of English population from which New England was colonized.

There is a feature of our dialects which, historically considered, seems a complete puzzle. New England and the population to the west of her, and then Virginia, agree in an extensive use of the Italian sound of the vowel, *a*, and also in the suppressed sound of the letter *r*; while between these regions—to wit, in all the region of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Northern Maryland—the narrower sound *a* prevails, and a fuller consonantal sound of *r*. Thus in New England and Virginia they say (*a* in *far*) *calm* and *balm*, and *laugh* and *grass*, and *past* and *command*; while in the region between they say (*a* in *fat*) *calm*, *balm*, *laugh*, *grass*, *past*, and *command*. So in New England and Virginia they say *fō-ah*, *mō-ah*, *caud*, *betteh*; while in the region between they say *four*, *more*, *cord*, and *better*. Just how it has come to pass that the two belts of population on the North and on the South thus agree together in their speech, while between them a belt of population differs from them both throughout its extent, it is difficult to say.

In all the South conversation is more cultivated among educated people than at the North. It is a noteworthy fact that conversation, considered as an accomplishment, scarcely exists in all our Northern States. Scarcely one educated person in a hundred is a skillful and practiced talker in general society. This is all the more remarkable when we remember that the whole nation is given to public talking. Let almost any man,

who in a parlor is wholly quiet, or who speaks only in an awkward and embarrassed way, once mount a stump, and he will harangue a crowd by the hour. But at the South almost every educated person of either sex will converse in a mixed company with freedom, and tact, and intelligence. Conversation is cultivated. There is an ambition to excel in it. From this, no doubt, in part, it has come to pass that pronunciation at the South is more old-fashioned than at the North. Conversation at the South has given the law to pronunciation, while at the North we have followed books, and have changed the pronunciation to suit the spelling. Thus at the South it is common, if not universal, to hear *clerk* pronounced *clark*, and *James Jeems*, and *keer* for *care*, and *skeer* for *scare*, and *rigiment* and *siminary* for *regiment* and *seminary*. And not only do old-fashioned pronunciations prevail at the South, but also old-fashioned phrases and expressions. A young man attaining his majority becomes "one-and-twenty" instead of "twenty-one." Instead of dining with a friend or taking tea, they eat "a meal's vittils" with him. The preservation of antique pronunciations and forms of expression is, no doubt, due also in part to the illiterate character of the mass of the common people. Book-language is almost unknown among these, and they cling to the English of their remote ancestors. Nowhere but in the South will you hear the old English words *mought* for *might*, *crope* for *crept*, *help* for *helped*. There you will hear them constantly from the common people. And that the common people help to form the speech of those who are educated and refined is evident from the fact that negroisms may be traced in the speaking of the whole Southern people.

Perhaps a sufficient number of illustrations has been given of the connection of our sectional habits with our modes of speech, yet it would hardly answer to dismiss the subject without some reference to our Westernisms of life and speech. Such words as "clearings," and "diggings," and "openings," point out sufficiently the new character of the Western country.

There is that, however, in Western language which is yet

more significant of peculiarity in Western life. Western people are much in the habit of using words in odd and unexpected ways, and of instituting grotesque comparisons, and of indulging in picturesque expressions. They indulge in a sort of wild freedom of speech which seems very truly to harmonize with the freedom of life belonging to a new country. For example, they prefer to call whisky *corn-juice*, because therein is the conception of the *make* of the article. And when they go further and call it *chain-lightning*, they very vividly set forth the style of its working. The Western man sometimes designates a groggery as a *juice-pen*, and therein intimates the beastly character of intoxication. They say of a man whose pretensions have been exposed, or who has egregiously failed in carrying out his plans, that he has "*flatted out*." Then a man of staunch character is not only "*there*," but, further and especially, he is so safe that "he will do to tie to." And what can a man do when thrown upon his own responsibility, launched out alone upon the stream of life, what can he do but "paddle his own canoe?" A Western man in traveling, when he happens to see a church, and desires to know who is its pastor, will ask the question, "Who runs the concern?" It is common everywhere to hear the word *badly* used for *much* or *greatly*. Thus, a man caught in a shower will say that he wants an umbrella very *badly*. But see the emphasis which the Western man obtains by a little twisting of the expression. He says, "I want an umbrella, *the worst kind*."—*Abridged from Appleton's Journal for November.*

DUTY is something that is with us at all times. It rises with us in the morning and goes to bed with us at night. Victor Hugo says: "Duty is an icy shadow." It is an ever-present shadow that goes with us to our schools and pictures itself to us in our homes. It leaves us only when the lamp of life has gone out.

VISIT OF THE DEAN OF WESTMINSTER TO THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

On the thirtieth day of September, at the beginning of the third academic year, the Johns Hopkins University was visited by the Very Reverend Arthur P. Stanley, D. D., Dean of Westminster, once Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the University of Oxford, and more recently Rector of St. Andrews, Scotland. The Dean was accompanied by George Grove, Esq., Editor of *Macmillan's Magazine*, and Dr. Gerald Harper, of London; and by George W. Childs, Esq., of Philadelphia, whose guests they had been for several days. The Trustees, the Faculty and the Students of the University, with some of the clergy and professional men of Baltimore, assembled in Hopkins Hall at 8 P. M., to receive their distinguished guest. After he had been presented to the company by the President of the University, Mr. Gilman, in a short address, which alluded particularly to the Dean's biography of Thomas Arnold, as a work which had exerted a powerful influence upon American teachers, Professor Gildersleeve, on behalf of his colleagues, said a few words of welcome, to which Dean Stanley responded.

The company then adjourned to the Library, where a collation was provided, and the rest of the evening was spent in conversation. Dean Stanley, without personal introductions, spoke in a familiar way to nearly every student present.

Professor Gildersleeve, as the spokesman of the University, addressed the Dean as follows:

"In the route laid down for you by the newspapers, Mr. Dean, Baltimore was omitted, and while we could not help hoping that the infallible reporter was wrong for once, still we knew that your time was short and our distances great, so that there was suspense enough to enhance, if anything could enhance, our pleasure at your arrival. Identified, as you have been, during your distinguished career with school and college and university, in full sympathy, as you have shown, with

every effort for higher and broader education, we invoke your interest in the experiment which we are making here, and thank you for the aid you are giving us by your presence to-day. For those who have organized this University are not content with the mere machinery of knowledge; they believe in the incalculable power of human sympathy and individual example; and it is not the language of official compliment when I say, in behalf of my fellow workers in the University, that this whole academic body is not only honored by your presence, but will be urged to renewed exertions by the virtue that goes out of a life which we all recognize as devoted to the highest ends of true scholarship."

To which Dean Stanley replied :

"I am no speaker, but I must return a few words of thanks for the kind language with which I have been received. When I see an institution like this in its first beginnings, I am carried back to the time when my own University in England was begun, perhaps a thousand years ago, in the fabulous obscurity of the age of Alfred, or even the more recent times of Walter of Merton, or Devorguilla of Balliol; and I seem to see the repetition of the same yearnings after a distant future of improvement, as those which were before the minds of those old mediæval founders. The same spirit is needed for that improvement on this side the ocean and on the other. I am led to think of the description given by Chaucer, in that inestimable Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*, which I hope you will read one day or other, of the Good Scholar and the Good Pastor, bred in Oxford in his time; and I see how, in spite of all the vast changes which have passed over the minds of men since that age, the same qualities are still necessary to make a good and sincere scholar, a good scientific student, an efficient medical or legal adviser, an efficient spiritual pastor. Simplicity, sincerity, love of goodness, and love of truth, are as powerful and as much needed in our day as they were in the days long ago which formed the great professions that are still the back-bone of society. The President and the Professor

have both referred to the influence of my beloved teacher in former times—Thomas Arnold. The lapse of years has only served to deepen in me the conviction that no gift can be more inestimable than the recollection and the inspiration of a great character working upon our own. It is my hope that you may all experience this at some time of your lives, as I have done. I entreat you to cherish this hope, and to remember that on your making the best of any such influences and also of the remarkable resources provided for you in this noble institution, depends your use in life, and the effect which you may produce on the future generations of this great country. There are many evils, many difficulties, individual and national, with which you will have to contend; but it may possibly cheer you in your efforts, to recall these words of an Englishman who now sees you for the first time, and who will in all probability never see you again. May God bless you all.”

FIRST LESSONS IN BOTANY.

BY GEORGE L. SMITH.

IX.—BEANS AND CORN.

T.—If you will plant a few beans in one flower pot, and some corn in another, keep them where it is moderately warm, and water them occasionally, for about a week, you will have some little plants in each, and can examine them in connection with the beans and corn, and see what changes have taken place. What part of the plant is the bean?

P.—It is the seed.

T.—But where does the seed come from, and what other name has it?

P.—It is found in the ovary, at the base of the pistil, and is called an ovule.

T.—I have soaked these beans in water over night, to make them soft. Tear one to pieces and describe the parts.

P.—There is a skin on the outside, and the inside splits into two pieces.

T.—This skin on the outside forms an overcoat for the inner parts, to protect them in the winter, and is called the *seed-coat*, while the inner part is called the *embryo*, that is, the germ or bud of the future plant. Does this *embryo* split all of the way down?

P.—No! The two parts hang together at one end.

T.—Is there any other difference between the two ends?

P.—There is a little projection at the end where they hang together, sticking out like a spur.

T.—Tear the two large pieces of the embryo apart, and look on the inside of the one that the spur hangs to.

P.—The spur runs inside a short distance, and then ends in points.

T.—Look at these points with your microscope.

P.—They are little leaves.

T.—Yes, like little feather-veined leaves, or even like a real little plume, and for this reason it is called a *plumule*. This is the part of the seed which grows to form all that we see of the plant above ground. The spur, as you called it, extends downward to form the root, and is called the *radicle*, while the two fleshy parts are called *cotyledons*, or little cups, because they are hollowed out to hold the plumule.

Then we have the Seed, or
 ovule, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{divided into} \\ 1 \text{ seed-coat;} \\ 2 \text{ embryo;} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{consisting of} \\ 1 \text{ plumule;} \\ 2 \text{ radicle;} \\ 3 \text{ cotyledons.} \end{array} \right.$

Now look at the bean plant, which by this time is three or four inches high. What are these two thick projections, fastened to the stem like leaves, but below the real leaves?

P.—They are the cotyledons which have withered and clung to the stem as it grew up.

T.—But notice that the stem is thicker where they are at-

tached, just as it is where the leaves above are attached. And here are some branches; I find in each the same thing.

P.—Then the cotyledons must be leaves, but what curious shaped ones.

T.—Yes, they are leaves, but were thickened in the seed to protect the plumule and to nourish it until the radicle became large enough to take up food for it. These thickened parts of the stem where the leaves are attached are called *nodes*, and the parts between them are the *internodes*. Now let us examine the grain of corn in the same way. Take off the seed-coat carefully, and see if the embryo is the same as it was in the bean.

P.—The seed-coat is much harder to get off, and the embryo don't split into two cotyledons.

T.—Then we might say that the embryo of the corn has but one cotyledon; but where is the plumule?

P.—I don't see any, unless this white place on one side is the plumule.

T.—Examine that white part more carefully with your microscope, and you will see that it has a little slit in it, larger at one end than at the other, like the edges of two curtains, and if you will fold these curtains back you will find the plumule underneath them. It is not the same shape as that of the bean, but if you will look at the corn plant you will see that it comes from the same part of the grain of corn. Seeds which, like the bean, have two cotyledons, are called *dicotyledonous*, while those like the corn, which have but one cotyledon, are called *monocotyledonous*. Look at the leaves of the two plants and tell what is the difference.

P.—The leaves of the bean plant are net-veined, while those of the corn are parallel-veined.

T.—So the dicotyledonous seed produces a plant with net-veined leaves, and the monocotyledonous seed a plant with parallel-veined leaves, and this is a general principle in botany, with very few, if any, exceptions.

SHOULD PINS HAVE POINTS? AND IF SO, WHERE?

The chairman announces the first topic for the consideration of the convention: "*Should Pins Have Points? And if so, Where?*" He then calls on Dr. Standby to open the discussion.

The Doctor announces that in order to give anything like a clear idea of the subject, he must go back to the creation and trace the subject down to the present time. The need of pins was first felt when it became necessary for Eve to fasten together fig leaves for aprons. He was strongly of the opinion that *pins* of some kind were actually used on that occasion, and that the word translated *sewed*, should have been rendered *pinned*. Now the best and most natural substitute for pins in that primitive age would be the thorn, and Swineskin in his late travels in the East had actually discovered a species of thorn well adapted to this use. *But thorns have points, and these points are always on the little end.* Here, then, is an excellent precedent. He then traced the history of pins through all nations, showing that some excellent specimens had been found in the stomach of an Egyptian mummy over four thousand years old, and gave a long array of statistics showing the number of pins used annually.

The next speaker was Professor Sharp, from Thorntown. He agreed most fully with the learned gentleman who had just taken his seat. It could be shown that the most highly civilized nations everywhere are the ones who use the most pins, and travelers have affirmed that the most savage nations use no pins at all. It must, therefore, be evident that the only thing necessary to civilize a nation is to supply them plentifully with pins. But as he couldn't see much point to pins without points, he thought they should have points somewhere. It had been quite common, as his predecessor remarked, to have the points on the little end; but it seemed to him it would be less dangerous to children if they were placed on the big end. The fact that our fathers had seemed to favor the little end is no reason why we should.

The next speaker was the agent of the great Button House—a rival of the great Pin-Making Company. While he was free to admit that there was some point to the arguments of the gentlemen who had preceded him, he could not agree with them in their conclusions. Pins, he said, were extremely dangerous, both to the child's physical and moral nature, and should not be tolerated. Nine-tenths of all the disorder created in the school-room is directly attributable to their use. They induce boys to cut holes through the backs of seats that they may wake up their neighbors, and the damage done to clothing by having it pinned fast to the seats is enormous. He showed how by bending a pin in a certain shape, it may be placed on a seat so that its point will stand upward. He had known cases where even teachers themselves had sat down on these relics of barbarism. They awaken the very lowest passions of a boy's nature, for they tempt him to impale the poor flies that happen to be on his desk, and they are a hundred times more temptation to gamble than cards, dice or horse racing! What teacher of our youth has not detected them playing the demoralizing game of *heads or points*? All this is due to the presence of the pin. Let every teacher, then, who does not wish to see his pupils grow up to be savages and gamblers, prohibit their use among his scholars. Statistics show, he would farther say, that more than 93 per cent. of all the mischief resulting from the use of pins is attributable to their *points*. This is wholly due to having the point on the *end*; placing it on the large end, as had been suggested, would hardly remedy the matter, as the pin would be as far-reaching in its evil results then as now, though placing it on the large end would probably have a tendency to prevent the game of heads and points. If we must have pins with points, let us have the points in the *middle*.

The last gentleman sat down amidst thundering applause, during which half a dozen gentlemen sprang to their feet. The President recognized Prof. Small, of the Hentown College. He was surprised to hear so many learned gentlemen make fools of themselves. They must know that a *point has position only*.

Now, that which has position without length, breadth or thickness can do no possible harm to anyone. More than this, the point cannot be confined to either end nor to the middle—the entire surface must of necessity be covered with points.

Prof. Cool then rose and offered the following resolution as a compromise, which was unanimously adopted :

Resolved, That we recognize the importance of pins as a valuable aid in our work, but think the position of the point may safely be left to the judgment of the teacher.—*Iowa Normal Monthly*.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

SCHOOL-REFORM.—The best friends of public schools see most clearly the short-comings of the system, and are the most willing to apply the proper remedies. It happens, most unfortunately, however, that just at the moment when reform becomes possible, the enemies of public education take advantage of the popular sentiment for sinister purposes, and join in the cry for reform with the intent that it shall be carried to revolution if not to destruction. Thus the reformers are driven back into the ranks of conservatism, and the fear of losing what they already have becomes a powerful motive to deter them from making new acquisitions. Let us inquire what reforms are needed, and what reforms are possible; and, to make our statements more precise, let us confine ourselves to Maryland, though the arguments will apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to all the States which maintain a system such as ours.

Reforms may be of two kinds, from without and from within.

1. Reforms outside the school-house. Can the expenses be lessened without lessening the efficiency of the system? This is a very important and a very proper inquiry. It is the question that agitates the soul of the newspaper reformer and critic. He would abolish High Schools, cut off "excrescences"—whatever they may be—give up the teaching of French and German and Drawing, and so-called ornamental branches, because he thinks he could save something by it. We propose to show him that the money now spent is not, absolutely, too large. We reserve for another inquiry whether this money is spent to the best possible advantage, that is to say, whether we get full value for our money. It is, of course, impossible here to go into details, and to show that in no school-house in the State is there burned a ton of coal more than is needed, and that there is no unnecessary expenditure for crayons or sweeping brushes.

We spend on an average a million and a half of dollars every year for the education of children in primary, grammar, and high schools; and we can, without examining into the smaller items, make a calculation which shall show whether this is an unreasonably large expenditure.

The Constitution of Maryland, and the laws made in pursuance of that Constitution, guarantee to every person in Maryland, between the ages of six and twenty-one, the right to instruction in the public schools. There are about 300,000 such persons in the State; and it is reasonable to suppose that one-half of them, at least, should be in school every day. The State has thus to provide for the instruction of 150,000 pupils. No one would assign more than 50 pupils to a teacher, and this gives us 3000 teachers to be paid. Giving the teachers an average salary of \$400 a year, which is certainly not too much, it will take \$1,200,000 to pay the necessary teachers. There are, in round numbers, about 2000 school-houses in the State, all needing some repairs every year, and many needing to be replaced by new ones. An outlay of \$250,000 a year will barely keep the houses up to the present standard. Allow now for each of our 150,000 pupils half a dollar a year each for books, and another half dollar for stoves, fuel, and small incidental expenses, and the account stands thus:

Salaries of teachers.....	\$1,200,000
Building and repairs, including furniture.....	250,000
Books, fuel, and incidentals.....	150,000
Total.....	<hr/> \$1,600,000

Which is about the average expenditure of the last two years. This calculation shows that no petty economy in school management can be expected to produce such a saving as would itself be felt in the tax-bills. The only place where the knife of retrenchment would have any chance of taking off a slice large enough to be seen, is in the item of teachers' salaries. But when one reflects that the sum allotted for this purpose must pay not only teachers, but superintendents, examiners, and school commissioners, hardly any one will be bold enough to assert that the amount is too large.

It is not necessary to add that the foregoing is a purely theoretical calculation, and is intended merely to show how much money *must be spent*, if we were to begin *de novo* to carry out the demands of the Constitution and the laws. In point of fact, some items cost more and some less than we have theoretically supposed. And there is an immense difference in the amount of the salaries actually paid to different teachers in different parts of the State, the payments rising from \$200 up to \$2,500 a year. Yet the allowance of \$400 a year to each of 3000 teachers would more than cover the amount actually expended last year for salaries of all kinds. It is impossible, evidently, to diminish expenses without virtually injuring the schools. To assign a larger average number of scholars to each teacher, to lower the standard of future teachers by putting the present teachers on

starvation wages, to stop building and repairing school-houses—all this would only mean the sure destruction of the public school system.

But, say the reformers, we don't need free high schools. Abolish them, and save the money expended in their support. Softly, gentlemen. You may abolish high schools, but that does not abolish the pupils going to high schools. They are still alive, and have a right to their education, and if you do not give it to them in the high school, they will stay in the grammar school, where it will cost almost as much to educate them as in the high school, for the apparent saving would be counteracted by the fact that they would form an additional grade in each school, and require a separate room and an additional teacher. There was no female high school in New York City for more than twenty years after we had established ours in Baltimore; and when at length the adoption of the high school was urged, it was upon the ground of *economy*. The pupils would not leave the grammar schools, and their studies had to be carried on in small classes, and at a great proportionate expense. We do not say that the abolition of the high schools would not save the public anything, but we do say that the saving would, after the first year, be so small as to have no perceptible effect on taxation; and in the course of time the expense of education would become greater without the high school than it is now with it.

We are constantly reminded by the economical reformers that the public school system has far outgrown the stature that was contemplated by those who founded it. We are told (and with truth) that public schools were at first intended for the benefit of those who were too poor to pay for better teaching. The free school was to be a kind of educational almshouse provided by the charity of the public, to prevent the intellectual starvation of the poor. Such schools were looked on with ill-suppressed contempt by the well-to-do citizen who could afford to pay from \$5 to \$20 a quarter for the schooling of his child. They were called pauper schools, charity schools, and as late as 1874, by a Baltimore newspaper, eleemosynary schools. And the reformers would have them brought back to their original status. We do not pretend to feed the paupers at Bay-View on roast beef and plum pudding, therefore Logic and Rhetoric, Algebra and Latin, must be cut off from the bill of fare of the high schools. Both institutions (the almshouse and the public school) were intended to furnish necessities, and not luxuries; and any departure from the original intention, any expansion of the first conception, is an outrage on the pockets of the tax-payer.

We have stated the argument strongly and fairly; now let us consider its validity.

1. The argument implies that the original conception of the public school as a charity school is the true idea; that it is best for the community that society should be separated into two classes—those who are able and willing to educate their children at their personal expense, and those who are unable or unwilling; that the children of one, and that the

largest class, should be supplied with the barest elements of instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, at the lowest possible rates, while the other and smaller class should enjoy such educational luxuries as they are able to pay for; that by means of such class education young people should be prevented from associating with each other at the very time of life when differences of social position are most readily ignored, and then be brought, at twenty-one years of age, to learn, at the ballot-box, and later in the halls of legislation, the lessons which they should have imbibed spontaneously in their youth.

2. The argument implies that the conditions of society are so far identical with what they were forty years ago, that a return to the old regime would be possible. But, in truth, such a return is as impracticable as it is undesirable. *Tempora mutantur, nos et mutamur in illis.* At the commencement of the public system, there was an abundance of private schools, seminaries and academies, many of them excellent in their way; and a well-to-do parent could send his child to a public or private school, as he pleased. But in course of time, the public schools advancing in efficiency, while the private schools remained stationary, parents who are both able and willing to pay for the tuition of their children, withdraw their sons from the private and send them to the public schools, not because the latter are cheaper, but because they are, on the whole, better. Thus private schools have been broken down all over the State of Maryland, and in many other States. No city in the Union had a larger list of good private schools than Baltimore, twenty years ago. A reference to the advertising columns of the *Sun* will show that we have not half as many to-day; and it is well known that but few of those in existence have any special merits. There are fathers and mothers who value social consideration higher than mere literary culture, and for them there will always be a private asylum, presided over by a lady of good family, but in reduced circumstances. But the private school, as an institution, is dead in Maryland. The public school has killed it; and the public school is now compelled to do both the work originally cut out for it, and the work done by the private school which it has superseded.

It may be said that if the facilities for intermediate and higher education were withdrawn from the public schools, the law of demand and supply would furnish the private academies needed to supply the want. This seems reasonable, but there is a disturbing force which vitiates the argument. It is not known to many—it became known to the writer only through sad experience—that in a private school it does not pay to teach the higher branches. They must be taught to keep up the reputation of the school, but it is at a dead loss. It is the elementary and middle classes of the school that yield the revenue. Now these classes will continue to go to public schools, because they can get better instruction there; so nothing is left to the teacher of the private school but that class of pupils which is unprofitable. It is plain that the private school, as an institution, can only

be revived by sacrificing our public schools; and the reformers earnestly protest that they have no such design. As was said before, there will always be a few private schools. Exceptional merit, as an instructor, will bring exceptional patronage; parents seeking special preparation for their children in certain definite lines, must obtain private tutors; mothers will continue to patronize "fashionable" schools, for the same reason as they employ a fashionable dress-maker; but whether we like it or not, the youth of this generation will, with comparatively few and insignificant exceptions, be educated in the public schools, and the problem for the reformers is not, how shall we throw the work of the public upon the private school, but how, recognizing the position which the former (whether rightly or wrongly) has assumed, and from which it can not now be dislodged, shall it be helped to perform more efficiently and satisfactorily the work which the march of events has imposed upon it? This problem shall receive notice hereafter. In the meantime we close with two words of caution and advice:

1. The expense of a school system does not increase with the increase of the number of branches taught, or with the rise of those branches in the literary scale. A teacher thoroughly competent to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic, will, for the same compensation, teach anything else that he knows and is required to teach. And if the demand were made that all principals and vice-principals should teach Latin, in four years the demand would be complied with without a murmur. Lowering the standard of education does not imply, necessarily, a reduction of expense.

2. There are many educators, practical and philosophical, earnestly desirous of making a thorough reform in our public system. But they cannot venture on any, even the very first steps of reform in the right direction, until the clamor for reform in the wrong direction has subsided. They are afraid that their well-meant endeavors to make things better might be made the occasion of making things worse. With the strongest desire to make progress, they are driven into conservatism by the fear of giving aid and comfort to the reactionists. The sooner, therefore, that newspapers and politicians in search of popularity recognize that permanent popularity is to be secured not by confining the schools to the narrow limits of pauperism within which they originated, but by developing and encouraging all that is useful, and cutting off only that which is useless in the system, the sooner we shall realize our grand aim—"the greatest possible good to the greatest possible number, and at the smallest possible expense."

CERTIFICATE ANNULLED.—The School Commissioners of Queen Anne's County have annulled the Certificate of Powell Nickerson, formerly of Delaware.

BOOK NOTICES.

COMMON SCHOOL LAW. A Digest of the Provisions of Statute and Common Law as to the Relations of the Teacher to the Pupil, the Parent and the District. By C. W. Bardeen. Syracuse, N. Y.: Davis, Bardeen & Co.

Though written from the standpoint of a New Yorker, the general principles laid down are as applicable in Maryland and Pennsylvania as in New York or Massachusetts. The value of the book is greatly enhanced by references to legal decisions in various States on many disputed points, such as the granting of certificates, the control of the pupil's studies, the use of the Bible in school, the power to suspend or expel pupils, the use and abuse of corporal punishment, &c.

NEW PRACTICAL ALGEBRA, adapted to the improved methods of Instruction in Schools, Academies and Colleges. By James B. Thompson, LL. D. New York: Clark & Maynard.

The principal novelty is a chapter showing the application of algebraic formulas to business problems in Profit and Loss, Discount, Interest Simple and Compound, Annuities, and Investments. The whole book, however, is well adapted to school use, as an Introduction to the severer forms of algebra.

THE PRACTICAL ARITHMETIC. By William J. Milne, A. M., Principal of the State Normal School, Geneseo, N. Y. Cincinnati: Jones, Borsther & Co.

"The design of the author in preparing this work has been to embrace within moderate compass all the essentials for a Practical Course in Arithmetic, and to present every subject in such a manner as to secure the highest mental development of the learner." We are not quite sure about this "highest mental development" business, but the Arithmetic is a good one, of the easy kind, and beautifully printed.

ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC, Oral and Written. By William G. Peck, Ph. D., LL. D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. Price 60 cents.

The co-ordination of Oral with Written work is carried out systematically and successfully. It is doubtless the only philosophical way to teach elementary arithmetic, and this book is, as the title shows, strictly elementary.

THE NEW WEST, as related to the Christian College. By E. P. Tenney.

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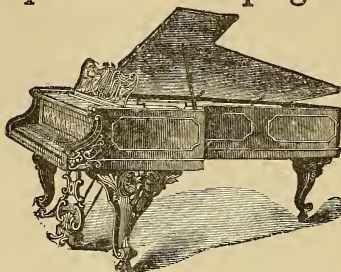
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DECEMBER, 1878.

No. 3.

REPORT ON "TEXT-BOOKS AND METHODS OF
INSTRUCTION IN LATIN."

BY JAMES M. GARNETT, LL.D.,
Principal of St. John's College, Annapolis.

[Read before Maryland Teachers' Association, August 28, 1878.]

In presenting to the Association a brief report on "Text-Books and Methods of Instruction in Latin," your Committee would refer to the original object of the appointment of these committees on different subjects of study, which was to keep the Association informed from year to year of any "reforms or improvements" in text-books and methods of instruction in the several objects for which committees are appointed. This really implies *brief* reports on each subject, and reports mainly taken up with a description of *new* text-books in the various departments of school and college studies. To secure efficiently the attainment of this object, it also implies the appointment on these committees of specialists in the respective studies, who would naturally try to keep abreast of the times in their own departments, and who would examine such new books as their means and opportunities enabled them to procure. It could scarcely be expected that one who was not

engaged in teaching a subject should keep pace with the advancement of knowledge in that subject, should procure the necessary books and devote himself to their study in order to produce a report that would be worth reading. Allowance must then be made for the character of this report consequent upon the appointment as Chairman of the Committee of one who, until the beginning of the past session, had not taught Latin for nearly ten years, and has not had the time or the opportunity to examine the various new text-books published in that department. During the past session, however, circumstances required him to teach a beginning class in Latin, using "Gildersleeve's Latin Primer" as the text-book, and a portion of this report will be occupied with an examination of that work.

Your Committee have, however, now for many years been impressed with the deficient preparation in Latin of boys entering college, and a few preliminary remarks on this subject may not, perhaps, be out of place. Our private schools, which undertake to prepare boys for college generally, if not universally, give instruction in Latin, and so do some of our Public High Schools. The question is a pertinent one, Why should not *all* of our High Schools teach Latin, and teach it well as far as they go? Your Committee cannot enlarge upon the advantages to be derived from the study of Latin, but they may be permitted to remark in passing that they consider it a subject eminently suited to a High School course. They are aware of some of the objections urged against it—lack of time; of no use in after life; time all needed for more *practical* subjects; slight attainments made after years of study, and others of similar character. But these objections are urged on mistaken premises, and have themselves, in most cases, never been submitted to a practical test. Your Committee venture to say that no High School in which Latin has been *well taught*, will be found willing to give it up. There is a unity, a consistency, a gradual development and consciousness of mental power attained in the thorough teaching

of Latin, which will help all the other school work. From the sole point of view of a better knowledge and use of the mother-tongue its value is really inestimable. An elementary knowledge of Latin, even so far as reading *Cæsar* with facility, is better than months spent in the study of etymological spelling without it. To quote the words of Mr. Joseph Gostwick in his recent "English Grammar, Historical and Analytical." "Latin compounds are so extensively employed that ignorance of their structure leads to wrong uses of words forming a large proportionate part of our language. The meanings of Latin stems, in all derivatives and compounds generally used, should be taught as carefully as we teach spelling." He illustrates the extent to which Latin stems form integral parts of English words by the statement that "more than a thousand belong to the seven verbs, *capio, fero, mitto, plico, pono, tendo* and *teneo*." And I would add that familiarity with Latin declension and conjugation, and with the text of some easy Latin author, is of more value in teaching a knowledge of Latin stems than any amount of disconnected teaching from an etymological speller. Moreover, our Public High Schools should prepare boys for college, and they cannot do this efficiently without teaching Latin at least. The colleges will excuse them from teaching Greek, from the difficulty of securing thorough instruction in this branch, and from the fact that a boy who knows Latin can make up his Greek by extra hard study after entering college; but they should, by all means, send up boys well prepared in Latin to enter the Freshman Class of the college. This involves teaching Latin in the High Schools for three years at most, and in some cases the amount required may be learnt in two years, according to the age, maturity of mind, and character of instruction of the pupil. If I may be permitted to speak in the first person, I want to see all of our High Schools and Academies organized with a thorough course of instruction in Latin for three years, or if this cannot be obtained, with one of two years at least. I am convinced that this will do more

to inspire in all boys who can afford it a desire to go to college, and more to secure that correlation of education in the State, which I long to see and have now for some years been laboring for, than any other one course we can pursue.

But after we have got our Latin course organized, comes the important question, how are we to teach it? I do not know that I can better emphasize the *first* point that I would insist upon, *a thorough teaching of Latin inflections*, than by quoting from the recent inaugural address of the President of the Virginia Educational Association, Prof. Thomas R. Price, of the University of Virginia. He says, in reference to our plan of teaching in general, that it is more nutritious than solid. "We are all trying to teach too many things. We are all striving to push our scholars forward too fast from the elements into the higher branches of knowledge. Thus there is a painful lack of proportion between the puny foundation and the swelling superstructures of our education. It is sad to find that most of our boys and girls, on examination, showily proficient as they may be in the higher branches and the lighter accomplishments, are principally defective in the essential parts of human knowledge. For example, in my department the absurd predominance of syntax-teaching over the solid teaching of the inflections is a just example of our besetting sin. Of the young men that I examine, I can find ten to work out an elaborate theory of the conditional relations for one that can write the parts of a Greek verb." Unfortunately, at our college, we are not quite so well off as the University professor, for the trouble with our candidates for admission is that neither do they know the "theory of the conditional relations," nor can they write the parts of a Greek or Latin verb. We will willingly forego the former if the schools will secure for us the latter; and there is no good reason why they should not, for any school that pretends to teach Latin at all ought to teach thoroughly the Latin inflections; but there is such lamentable ignorance in even this elementary matter on the part of candidates for admission to college that I make no

apology for strenuously insisting upon it in this report. If a boy is uncertain as to his inflections, if he does not quite know whether this noun is of the second or the fourth declension, that verb of the third or the fourth conjugation, what is the genitive case of *unus*, or the comparative of *bonus*, there is not much hope of his progress in Latin. I would say first, then, to all teachers of Latin, lay the foundation in an accurate knowledge of the inflections, review again and again, if need be, until this is attained, and never think your pupils too far advanced to decline a noun or conjugate a verb, for if you do you will be surprised at their ignorance when you least expect it.

A *second* point which I would insist upon, which is really auxiliary to the first, is *the writing of Latin*. Latin composition is, I take it, very much neglected in the schools of this State. Boys come to college unable to put together correctly the simplest Latin sentence, and young men graduate from college with an ignorance on this subject that should disgrace a Freshman. There can be no really solid knowledge of Latin without knowing how to write it with at least grammatical correctness, even if we cannot make much pretension to style. Besides mistakes in forms and constructions, boys fail to realize that Latin idioms and English idioms do not correspond, and even when they make no grammatical error, they put an English sentence into such Latin as would have shocked a Roman peasant. In this respect our instruction is far inferior to that of the English, let alone the Germans, with whom we can bear no comparison whatever. Now, there is no remedy for this state of things but early and persistent teaching of Latin composition. The correction of Latin exercises is not an agreeable occupation, although I must say, from a large experience in both, that it is far preferable to the correction of English compositions. But the teacher must be conscientious and painstaking in this matter. He must insist upon the writing of Latin forms on the blackboard or on paper from the very start, and let each member of the class correct

another's and not his own mistakes. This will train to carefulness and accuracy, and will make pupils observant of forms of all parts of speech. Let them, then, put together simple Latin sentences, and do not carry them on too fast, but as they are prepared for it let the sentences increase in difficulty and introduce gradually new forms and constructions. Continual practice and continual review is the secret of success; the saying over and over again may not be very profitable to the teacher, but he is working for the boy, and to him it is of untold benefit. And as pupils advance in the art of writing Latin, do not keep them at simple sentences, but require them to write paragraphs; translate pieces from some Latin author; require them to be turned back into Latin, and after correction compare before the class the Latin of the author and that of the pupil. Pupils will in this way gain a very thorough knowledge of Latin constructions, and will gradually acquire a Latin style. If we will only give the necessary time and patience to it, I do not see why our college graduates should not write a Latin essay with the same facility and accuracy as the German *Abiturient*, who, on leaving the Gymnasium for the University, writes his original Latin essay on some assigned subject without assistance of any sort, and with as much ease as he writes his German essay. This is no Utopian idea, but it will require a very different sort of teaching Latin from that which our boys now get in the schools and colleges.

The *third* and last point which I would insist upon here is that stated by Professor Gildersleeve in the preface to his "Latin Primer," and carried out by him throughout the book, namely, "*early contact with the language in mass*," or, in other words, introduce the pupil to reading Latin as soon as possible, and let him read real Latin and not made up Latin. As soon as the pupil is familiar with the simplest forms of declension and conjugation, put him to reading some simple Latin, short and easy fables for instance; but do not overtask his powers. Give him much help at first, for if he finds his translation too hard, he will get discouraged and may not work with

zeal and earnestness, but grade the reading to his attainments, and stimulate his interests and ambition. Some will take hold much sooner than others, but go slowly at first, to give the laggards a chance to catch up, and here, as before, review frequently, and soon all will make a fair amount of progress, except the incorrigibly dull and lazy who ought not to study Latin at all. Taking up reading early interests boys and gives them a consciousness of their ability to put in practice what they know, which is a spur to further attainments. I do not mean that the daily exercise in forms should be omitted for the sake of the reading, but they should go on together, and as the pupil learns new forms, he should have the opportunity of using them in reading as well as writing. Thus with a daily recitation in grammar and reading, and an exercise, if not daily, at least every other day in writing, a live class, with *a live teacher*, will learn Latin rapidly and be interested in its study; but if the teacher himself is not *live*, no class can make progress in Latin or anything else. I am convinced that our slow progress, and often superficial knowledge, is due, not to lack of methods or of text-books, but to lack of *men*, and the first place to introduce "reforms and improvements" is in the teachers themselves, and the rest will follow naturally.

But not to prolong this report to an undue length, I shall, in conclusion, briefly examine Professor Gildersleeve's "Latin Primer," which is the introductory volume to his Latin series, consisting, in addition, of Grammar, Reader and Exercise-Book. From its title of "Primer," it would not do to consider it as too elementary for any beginning class, for it really contains more in the same compass than any elementary Latin book with which I am familiar. It consists of forty-eight (48) Lessons, each of which comprises grammar, vocabulary and exercises from Latin into English and English into Latin, and after Lesson XXII, the close of the First Part, a short piece for reading is appended to each Lesson. This arrangement is met with in some other books for beginners, and is decidedly preferable to that in which a beginner is expected

to use two books, a Grammar and a Lessons, and to refer continually from one to the other. Young boys will not make references understandingly, and should have before them in the plainest and simplest form what they are expected to learn for each lesson. In the First Part are contained the five declensions of nouns, the declensions and comparison of adjectives, the paradigm of *sum*, and of the active voice of the four conjugations, the pupil being gradually introduced to the various forms of inflection, and being exercised in both reading and writing on each set of forms as he learns them. Few rules of syntax are given in the First Part, and these are of the simplest character. The declensions and the conjugations are carefully distinguished according to the final letter of their respective *stems*, a great improvement upon the old method, and, according to my experience, this method is learnt by boys just as easily and more naturally, for after all, the scientific method is the only natural one. Professor Gildersleeve has appended to the volume a "Note to Teachers" on this subject, which is unanswerable. The Second Part introduces gradually the exceptional forms of the declension of nouns, the paradigms of the passive voice of the four conjugations, of deponent verbs, and of the irregular verbs, the rules for gender of the third declension, and for the formation of the perfect of the third conjugation, the simpler uses of the subjunctive mood, the paradigms of pronouns of all classes, the uses of numerals, of prepositions and adverbs, of the imperative, the expression of place, the accusative and infinitive, relative clauses, sentences of result, the infinitive, gerund and gerundive, and finally the ablative absolute. Thus it will be seen that, notwithstanding the title of "Primer," much more ground is covered than in far more pretentious works. The question might possibly arise, Is not the young pupil carried on too fast, and does he have time to digest what he has learnt before he is introduced to something new? This is a pertinent question, and demands a satisfactory answer. In my judgment, the answer depends upon the

teacher and upon the class. Because the book is divided into Lessons, it must not be supposed that each Lesson can be learnt at one recitation. The teacher may frequently find it advisable to devote several recitations to one Lesson, and to omit certain portions the first time a particular Lesson is assigned to the class. With a bright class of course, as every teacher knows, much more can be done than with a dull one, and the teacher must suit the instruction to the capacity of the class. But as we are speaking of average teachers and average classes, I should advise that, on the first study of the book, some portion of the written exercises from English into Latin and of the reading-lessons be omitted, and these can readily be taken up in the review. The teacher must exercise judgment in his teaching and assignment of lessons, and must make haste slowly. There is enough in the little book to occupy a class fully for a ten months' session at five lessons the week, but after a class has once mastered the work it will know more Latin than from any similar work that I know. I should also advise a thorough and more rapid review of the book at the beginning of the second session in connection with some reading-book. This notice of the "Latin Primer" is intended to be descriptive and not critical, as I should naturally hesitate to offer criticism upon the work of this distinguished scholar.

There are, however, a few changes which I should like to see made. While the "Roman" pronunciation is the one adopted, the preferable sound of the diphthongs *æ* and *œ* is given as *a* in *fame*, rather than almost as English long *i* and *oi* respectively. I should, with diffidence, prefer the latter. The fables introduced into the First Part seem to me unsuitable to pupils just beginning, even though translations are given of all words not previously found in the vocabularies, and I think that their place might advantageously be filled with additional simple exercises in reading, for just at this stage boys need continual practice in what they have learnt. The vocabularies attached to the lessons appear to me

here and there too long. Boys should commit carefully to memory all the vocabularies as they reach them, and some of them are too long for this purpose without spending undue time upon them. They might be shortened to advantage, and the words excluded placed in the longer vocabulary at the end of the volume. Occasionally words are repeated in the vocabularies, and some few have been accidentally omitted from the vocabulary at the end, which ought to be there as they are found in the reading-lessons. The fulness of this vocabulary is, however, noticeable, and a great advantage for beginners is its giving the perfects and supines of *all* verbs about which a doubt might arise. Another advantage of the work, which should not be passed over without mention, is the careful marking of the quantity of all long vowels, which is of much assistance to the beginner. With respect to the arrangement, the paradigms of the pronouns are postponed rather later than is usual, and the uses of the subjunctive mood are introduced rather earlier, but there is no disadvantage in this for those who study the whole book. The valuable "Notes on the Reading-Lessons" might, I think, be increased, for there is no danger that too much assistance will be given to the pupil.

On the whole, I know of no better book for the beginner in Latin, if judiciously used by the teacher, and this must be presupposed. The only other book of this series which I have used is the "Latin Grammar," and this I can speak of in the highest terms. The pupil can begin it as soon as he has completed the "Primer," and he need use no other throughout his collegiate course. I have never used the "Reading Book" or "Exercise Book," but I have heard teachers who have used the latter for several years speak of it as far superior to any other they had ever tried. I regret that I cannot, for the Committee, notice other series of text-books for teaching Latin; but, as mentioned above, I have not had the time or opportunity to examine them, and while the principal portion of this report is devoted to laying stress upon certain points in the

elementary teaching of Latin, which, I think, all teachers ought to observe, no matter what text-books they use, I desired to introduce to the teachers of the State, who have not yet used the work, that elementary text-book which I have recently become practically familiar with, which is written by one of our own professors, and which has, as far as I know, no superior for the purpose designed.

There ought to be no difficulty now in procuring for all your public High Schools teachers fully competent to give instruction in Latin. With this done, and with their courses in Latin, Mathematics and English organized so as to prepare boys well for college, with the attention of their pupils directed to the advantages of a collegiate education, and its value urged upon them, the colleges and the schools will be brought into closer connection, and with our university next door to crown the whole, there will be a unity and a harmony in our educational system which it now lacks, and which it must have if the full benefit is to be derived from the educational work now done everywhere in the State. I have endeavored to point out one way in which this object may be furthered, and I firmly believe that one of the missing links may be found in the thorough organization of High School and Academic courses in Latin, preparatory to the colleges of the State.

SAYINGS FROM THE CHINESE.—1. Dig a well before you are thirsty.

2. The ripest fruit will not fall into your mouth.

3. Great wealth comes by destiny—moderate wealth by industry.

4. The pleasure of doing good is the only one that does not wear out.

5. Water does not remain in the mountains, nor vengeance in great minds.

6. Let every one sweep the snow from his own door, and not busy himself about the frost on his neighbor's tiles.

UNITS.

BY PROF. A. REICHENBACH.

Mathematicians say that a unit is a single thing or one. Little does the school boy think of the many kinds of units and their uses, when he learns this definition. After a while he learns something about abstract and concrete units; and, if his teacher is not very thoughtful, the classification will stop there.

The advanced pupil in arithmetic will save time and facilitate his study, if the teacher carries the investigation farther. The teacher must judge when he should end each lesson, or how many lessons ought to be made out of the whole.

This investigation may include the following: In the first place, all units are either integral or fractional. An apple is an integral unit, because it is a single thing which is *not* a part of something else; but the fourth of an apple is a fractional unit, because it is a single thing and is a *part* of something. A fraction is therefore a fractional unit or a collection of such units.

In the second place, all units are either abstract or concrete, according to many mathematicians. The abstract unit is the base of all numbers. Abstract units may be named units of the first order, units of the second order, etc. In 111 there is one unit of the first order, one of the second, and one of the third. Concrete units may be divided into ordinary concrete, as apples, pears, tables, etc., and denominate units, as dollars, pounds, etc.

Let us take the last in the order of development, and let us see whether the several tables will not be more easily remembered and more cheerfully studied. We begin with *time*. The invariable unit is the day, and is called the standard unit. From this we derive, by multiplication, the week, month, etc., and by division, the hour, minute and second. We have, then, in the time table, a standard unit and derived

units. The same is true of most of the tables; and when there are higher and lower units than the standard, the derived units are obtained either by multiplication or division of that standard.

From the time table we proceed to linear measure. A pendulum vibrating seconds in a vacuum, at the level of the sea, in the latitude of London, has an invariable length, hence a standard unit of length was found, by taking a certain part of this pendulum. It is called the Imperial yard. The derived units in the table are obtained by multiplication and division as above.

From length we obtain the units of surface and of cubic measure. The last enables us to take a certain number of cubic inches for the standards in liquid measure, dry measure, and weight. From weight we obtain a standard for currency. These tables are links forming a chain; and, if reviewed in the order of connection, reason will lend memory wonderful assistance in retaining them.

The table of circular measure may be called a species of variable long measure, as far as its general use on circumferences is concerned, and in this sense alone could it be made dependent upon long measure; but the standard does not come from any link in the above chain, and therefore this table is really independent. The natural standard is the right angle; the common standard is the degree. The former is invariable, the latter variable, as ordinarily used in arithmetic.

We have only to think whether we wish to measure distances on unequal circumferences, or whether we wish to take equal fractions of unequal circles, which fractions must be expressed by the same number of degrees.

The teacher may proceed in this manner, or he may simplify and fill out more, according to the wants of his class. It is usually best to write an outline on the blackboard and to keep it there until the pupils understand it well, from explanations and drills. The following may be used to great advantage:

UNITS.

I. As to comparative value.

- 1 Integral.
- 2 Fractional.
 - 1) Common.
 - 2) Decimal.
 - 3) Duodecimal.

II. As to general application.

1 Abstract—the base of all numbers.

- 1) Of the first order.
- 2) Of the second order, etc.

2 Concrete.

- 1) Ordinary concrete.
- 2) Denominate.

(1) Time.

a Standard—day.

b Derivatives.

a) By multiplication—week, etc.

b) By division—hours, etc.

c Forms the base of

a) Length.

(*a*) Standard—Imperial yard.

(*b*) Derivatives—two classes as above, by multiplication and division.

(*c*) Forms the base of

aa Square measure.

aa) Standard—square yard or acre.

bb) Derivatives—two classes.

bb Cubic measure.

aa) Standard—seldom given. The cubic yard may thus be used.

bb) Forms the base of

(*aa*) Dry measure.

a' Standard bushel.

b' Derivatives—one class, ordinarily.

(*bb*) Liquid measure.

a' Standard—gallon.

b' Derivatives—two classes.

(*cc*) Weight.

a' Standard—pound.

b' Derivatives—two classes.

c' Forms the base of Currency, which has its standard and two classes of derivatives.

QUESTIONS USED AT THE EXAMINATION OF
THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES OF
THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS OF WASH-
INGTON COUNTY.

ALGEBRA.

1. Add x^2+xy+y^2 ; $ax^2-axy+ay^2$ and $-by^2+boxy+bx^2$.
2. From $2x-y+(y-2x)-(x-2y)$ take $y-2x-(2y-x)+(x+2y)$.
3. Multiply $y^2-ya+\frac{1}{4}a^2$ by $y^2+ya-\frac{1}{4}a^2$.
4. Divide x^4-y^4 by $x+y$
5. Simplify $\sqrt{np+2m^2}-2m\sqrt{np+m^2}$
6. There are two numbers whose difference is 15, and half their product is equal to the cube of the lesser number. What are the numbers?
7. The sum of two numbers is 7, and the sum of their 4th power is 641. Required the numbers.
8. Expand $\left(1-\frac{1}{x}\right)^7$
9. Raise $-8a^2bx^{-1}y^{-3}$ to the -2 nd power.

$$10. \text{ Simplify } x + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{x+1}{3-4}}$$

ARITHMETIC.

1. $\frac{4}{5}$ of $\frac{7}{8} + \frac{2}{3} - \frac{3}{4} + 4\frac{6}{7} \div \frac{\frac{4}{5} \text{ of } \frac{2}{3}}{\frac{5}{6}}$
2. Require the least number of yards of goods, in whole numbers, that can be cut up, without waste, into vest patterns of $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, or $\frac{6}{7}$ yards each.
3. $.5 \times .05 \div .0005$.
4. What part of a pound avoirdupois is a pound troy?
5. If molasses cost 20 per cent. less than 50 cents per gallon and be sold at 25 per cent more per gallon than it cost, at what price is it to be sold?

6. Bought a horse, buggy and harness for \$500. The horse cost $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less than the buggy, and the harness 70 per cent. less than the horse. What was the price of each?

7. What will be the proceeds of a note for \$1,200, payable in 60 days, discounted at bank, at 7 per cent.?

8. The value of certain stock is \$250 per share, annual dividend \$15 per share. What must be paid per share that the investment may pay 10 per cent.?

9. What will it cost to lay the stone in a wall 35 feet long, 3 feet, 6 in. thick and 4 feet high, at $37\frac{1}{2}$ cents per perch?

10. The ridge of a roof is 10 feet above the eaves. How many shingles will be required to cover the house, it being 40 feet long and 35 feet wide, allowing 4 shingles to a square foot?

GEOMETRY.

Demonstrate the following theorems:—

1. In any triangle the greater side is opposite the greater angle, and conversely the greater angle is opposite the greater side.

2. The diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.

3. The area of a triangle is equal to half the product of its base and altitude.

4. The square described on the hypotenuse of an right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares described on the other two sides.

5. The diameter of a circle is greater than any other chord.

6. If a straight line is perpendicular to a radius at its extremity, it will be tangent to the circle at that point.

7. An angle formed by two chords which intersect is measured by half the sum of the included arcs.

Solve the following problems:

8. Find a mean proportional to 12 and 27.

9. If the ratio of 3 A to 2 B is $\frac{3}{4}$, what is the ratio of A to B.

10. A ladder, whose length is 91 feet, stands close against the building; how far must it be drawn out at the bottom that the top may be lowered 7 feet?

PARSING AND ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following passage, and parse the words in italics.

'Tis certain greatness, once *fallen* out with fortune,
Must fall out with men, too: *What* the decline is,
He shall as soon read in the eyes of *others*,
As *feel* in his own fall: For men, *like butterflies*,
Show not their mealy wings, *but* to the summer ;
And not a man, *for* being *simply man*,
Hath any Honor, but *honor* for those Honors
That are without him, as *Place*, Riches, Favor,
Prizes of accident as oft as *Merit* ;
Which when they *fall*, as *being* slippery *standers*,
The *Love* that leaned on them as slippery *too*,
Do one *pluck* down another, and *together*
Die in the *fall*.—SHAKESPEARE.

Write an original composition during the following week and send it to P. A. Witmer.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. What meridian has been assumed as the line of separation between the Eastern and Western Hemispheres?
2. Give the Latitude and Longitude of the following places—saying North and South, East or West: Cairo in Egypt, Canton, Bogota, Cape Verde, Washington, D. C.
3. Describe the general features of the American Continent.
4. What waters would you pass through by the shortest navigable route from London to Bombay?
5. What are the chief exports of France?
6. What are the chief exports of Brazil?
7. To what is the moderate temperature of England and Ireland due?
8. Name some of the characteristics of the soil and climate of Maryland, and give its population and area.

9. Name the counties of Maryland and county towns, and designate the six most populous counties.

10. Name and locate six large seaport cities of the United States.

HISTORY.

1. When was Jefferson inaugurated, and what prominent events occurred during his administration?

2. When was Madison inaugurated, and what were the chief events of his administration?

3. When was Jackson inaugurated, and what were the chief events of his administration?

4. When was Polk inaugurated, and what were the chief events of his administration?

5. What territory was acquired by the conquest of Mexico?

6. How many amendments have been made to the Federal Constitution?

7. How are amendments made to the Constitution?

8. Where was the National Capital first established, and when was it removed to Washington City?

9. What battles took place in Tennessee during the late civil war?

10. What battles occurred in North Carolina?

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

1. What is Literature?

2. Name some of Chaucer's works, and give a brief sketch of him.

3. Name some of Spencer's works, and give a sketch of him.

4. Give a sketch of Shakespeare, and name some of his dramas.

5. Give a sketch of Byron, and name his principal works.

6. Name five of the most distinguished English prose writers, giving the principal works of each.

7. Name six of the most noted American poets, with the principal works of each.

8. Name six most eminent American prose writers, with the principal works of each.

9. What effect had the Norman conquest upon English literature?

PHYSIOLOGY.

Write a short essay upon the following topics, giving information upon all the heads named:

1. The Skin—The layers of which it is composed; the glands, their name and uses; the scarf skin; the necessity of bathing.

2. The Hair—Its structure and mode of growth; the care necessary to preserve it.

3. The Bones—Their growth, structure and uses; name and location of the principal bones.

4. The Muscles—Classes, names and functions; manner of attachment; the principal muscles, name and location; the diaphragm, description and use.

5. The Saliva—Its functions; the salivary glands, name and location.

6. The Stomach—Its location; coats, their names and uses; secretion; function.

PHYSICS.

1. State the laws of falling bodies in vacuo.

2. State the laws of oscillation of the pendulum.

3. What is molecular force? Name the different kinds of it.

4. For what are barometers used, and what causes produce fluctuations of the mercurial column?

5. State the causes which modify the intensity of sound.

6. State the different theories of heat, and designate the one generally adopted by physicists.

7. At what temperature does water reach its maximum density?

8. What is the solar spectrum?

9. State the laws of magnetic attraction and repulsion.

10. State some of the different purposes to which galvanic electricity may be applied.

HOW WE LEARN, HOW WE TEACH, AND HOW WE OUGHT TO TEACH.

BY B. A. BROOKS, A.M.

I. HOW WE LEARN.

Nature's way is the best way. If, then, we can find out the natural way of learning, it will teach us how to teach. All education begins at the fingers' ends—with the five senses. The human infant—that bundle of weakness with untold capacities, when it appears upon the scene of its earthly existence, knows absolutely nothing of its surroundings. But it immediately applies itself to the problem of finding out and adapting itself to the condition of its earth-life. And this is the whole of education; a problem left incomplete by the oldest sages. Hence teaching is the "applied science of training a human soul to its terrestrial uses."

What does a child learn during the first two years of its life? First, phenomena—the nature, qualities and uses of the objects with which it comes in contact. Touch, taste, smell, sight, hearing, are all in active, constant use, applied to the outward objects, and learning their nature and uses. Every act is an object lesson, every moment imparts knowledge. It is the school of nature. But this is not all. The child learns the use and capacities of its own body. Learns to balance itself on its feet and to walk, an act, for him, surpassing the skill of the gymnast. In fact, the nursery is a gymnasium of the best class, where every muscle is brought into constant and healthful activity; and in a natural manner. Then the child learns a language, learns two or more, if spoken in its presence, and this without a teacher. It learns to use its organs of speech,—a more difficult accomplishment than playing the piano. Who can tell what a child has learned in this time by the employment of its mental faculties; the new and wonderful ideas it has acquired; the suggestions, reflections and sensations it has experienced?

This is the school of nature, undoubtedly designed by the

Creator in thus placing the infant man with such wonderful capacities in the midst of such a world requiring the exercise of those faculties and furnishing such an abundance of agreeable objects for his instruction and use. Here, then, we may learn nature's order and method of teaching. First, the perception, applied to natural objects and the state of society and life in which the child finds itself. Then, comparison, reflection, judgment, memory, imagination, and lastly, reasoning. Here the order is the thing, then the sign; the idea, then the word; the thought, then the sentence; proceeding always from the known to the unknown. The thing demands a name and suggests the idea. The necessity for a term or process calls forth its use and exercise. Observe, finally, the fundamental fact that all this learning is accompanied with constant and real pleasure and delight. It is the highest and purest pleasure known to man. There is a royal road to knowledge. Nature, the creator of the human mind, has pointed it out. The child follows it for the first few years of its life. Field and stream, wood and workshop, bird, beast and fish, the occupations of men, the companionship of his fellows, all instruct and delight. He knows no book, no teacher, no rod, no rule, but all is ever-increasing pleasurable acquisition of the most useful knowledge known to man.

Then the child is sent to school, and all is changed. Then come tears and sorrow; the laggard step to the prison-house; the glad hurrah of release from its doors. Nature's methods are all abandoned and reversed. The stupid book, with its unmeaning words, is put into his hands; the unsympathetic hireling teacher tries to compress the budding mind into the Procrustean bed of precedent and form. Instead of being a guide and companion, he is a police officer, guarding the doors of true instruction and pleasure. The process of instruction, *drawing out*, ceases, and the pouring-in process begins. "All joy abandon ye who enter here" is written over the door of the tyrant's cell. How we teach and how we ought to teach will be discussed in future numbers.—*New York School Journal.*

CALCULATING BOYS.

Mr. George Bidder, once well known to all the world as "the Devonshire calculating boy," died the other day at a ripe age. He had the good sense, after delighting the "groundlings" by performing marvellous arithmetical feats, to study carefully a profession; he became a civil engineer of some eminence; enjoyed the confidence and esteem of Robert Stephenson; was once president of the Institute of Civil Engineers; and drew up some tables which are of use to his professional brethren. Calculating boys are rather obsolete prodigies. Whether it is from the cheapness and abundance of ready reckoners, or the spread of education and the increase of the ability to make use of logarithm tables, or contempt for the faculty, the lad who can multiply in the twinkling of an eye six figures by six is rare, and is in little request. The modern schoolmaster has no great ambition to foster useless prodigies of the type of Jedediah Buxton or Zerah Colburn. He would probably find that the government inspector rated very cheaply the worth of the juvenile calculator. In fact, this generation is so much a stranger to this juvenile phenomenon, that it knows little of the nature of the feats at which our fathers held up their hands in amazement, and which for a time were supposed to imply intellectual powers of hitherto unheard of vigor, and to be as marvellous as the gift of tongues. In his "Memoir," Zerah Colburn tells us that a notorious free thinker, who had seen the arithmetical prodigies wrought by him at the age of six, went home much disturbed, passed a sleepless night, and ever afterwards renounced infidel opinions. And this was only one illustration of the vague feeling of awe and open mouthed wonder which his performances excited. People came to consult him about stolen spoons; and he himself evidently thought that there was something decidedly uncanny, something supernatural, about his gift. And no doubt his apparently intuitive mastery over figures, according to perfectly credible accounts, was truly marvel-

lous. On one occasion, Colburn was asked to name the square of 999,999, which he stated to be 999,998,000,001. He multiplied this by 49, and the product by the same number, and the total result he then multiplied by 25. He raised the figure 8 to the sixteenth power with ease. He named the squares of 244,999,755 and 1,224,998,775. He instantly named the factors 941 and 263, which would produce 247,483. He could discover prime numbers almost as soon as named. In five seconds he calculated the cube root of 413,993,348,677. Bidder, as Colburn admits, was even more remarkable in some ways; he could not extract roots or find factors with so much ease and rapidity as Colburn, but he was more at home in abstruse calculations. The calculating powers of both lads began very early. At three years of age, George Bidder answered wonderful questions about the nails in a horse's four shoes. At eight, though he knew nothing of the theory of ciphering, he could answer almost instantaneously how many farthings there are in £868,424,121.

There are two or three curious things true of these calculating juveniles, and the most obvious is that they have grown into men of mediocre ability. None of them have exhibited the slightest tincture of genius in mature life. Zerah Colburn's "Memoir" is an inane production, which would be tedious in the extreme except for its absurd *naïveté* and the frankness with which the author admits his mediocrity. Speaking of himself, he says, with manifest truth, "he was not remarkable either for quickness of mind or closeness of application." "He was not particularly fortunate in arriving at a result which did not readily present itself." He was put by a patron to Westminster School, and it is pretty clear that he proved rather dull when placed in competition with lads of his own age. The only exception to the rule that juvenile calculators prove mediocrities which occurs to us, is Whately, who had, undoubtedly, for a short time, an extraordinary aptitude for figures, akin to that of Bidder and Colburn, and who, if he had been

unfortunate enough to have had a father as vain and silly as Colburn's was, might have been exhibited to admiring crowds. A second fact about these prodigies is that the gift, such as it is, rapidly falls off. In Whately's case, it lasted only two or three years. In Colburn's case it lasted longer, and he ascribes its decline to want of practice when he gave up exhibiting his prowess. But it is pretty apparent that—perhaps partly from premature, exhausting mental exertion—the faculty itself really declined; that it could not flourish along with other faculties, which unfolded themselves as the child grew; and that, as Colburn's general intelligence and knowledge increased, his capacity to answer arithmetical puzzles sensibly diminished. Whately's aptitude for mental calculations vanished as soon as he went to school and began his education, and it seems true of all the precocious calculators that they were at their best only when they had nothing to distract them, and before their minds were disciplined and stored with knowledge. It is almost unnecessary to state that this faculty has no connection with true aptitude for mathematics. None of the prodigies whom we have named grew into eminent mathematicians, or disclosed any high talents for mathematical science. We could mention, it is true, several of the latter—Euler and Wallis, for instance—who were rapid and expert calculators, but none of them exhibited precocious aptitude for ciphering. The youthful Pascal, who discovered for himself the demonstration of the thirty-second proposition of the first book of Euclid, or Newton, who, as a boy, invented cleverly-constructed windmills, belongs to another species from the lads who get coppers by multiplying six figures by six figures, or calculating the number of barleycorns which will extend between London and Paris.

In a small degree the faculty possessed by Colburn and Bidder is exhibited by every proficient bank clerk. It is possessed in degree by many men of business, who can with ease run up simultaneously the three money columns of their ledger, or by clever practical engineers, who can leap to conclusions to which

others can only toil by the use of formulæ and pen and ink. But as witnessed in Colburn in his youth, this power of calculation was perhaps the result of a defect, almost as much as of mental power. Take a healthy child, of vigorous mind and quick perceptions. Every hour in the day, and at every inlet of its senses, are rushing in varied conflicting impressions. Its incipient knowledge is a confused, jarring mass of sights and sounds. To such a child, which will grow into the vigorous-minded man, the very sense of number comes late. To bring it forth, the artificial stimulus of the schoolroom may be necessary; and for a richly-stored, quickly working mind to exercise so much abstraction as to look only at things as numbers, is impossible. The tendency of such a mind to roam and diverge forbids this; and yet what is this tendency but imagination in the wild state, so to speak, imagination which, when disciplined and applied to facts, will be the poet's gift or the savant's power of generalizing? On the other hand, the exercise may be practicable to a poorer and weaker nature. Take a child of sluggish disposition, slow to observe, and with no acute senses, taking in few impressions, and those only of the most obvious kind, with few emotions, rather indolent and self-absorbed. Here we have the elements of a calculating juvenile. Abstraction is easy, when the very poverty of the child's mind saves it from distraction. Freedom of movement is practicable in an empty room. The numerical aspects of things may be paramount in a mind which carries away no vivid impressions of form or color, which works, in fact, like a cog-wheel. Warburton calls "the routine of demonstration the easiest exercise of the mind, where much less of the vigor than of the attention of the mind is required to excel." This remark is quite untrue, if applied, as Warburton applied it, to the art of the mathematician, who must exercise imagination, whose mind must be stored with countless devices, and who succeeds in solving problems which utterly baffle others, not so much because he can command his attention, as because he can combine and recombine figures, symbols, and forms with a fer-

tility of resource of which the non-mathematician has no conception. Warburton's remark is singularly wide of the mark, if offered as an explanation of the secret of a great geometrician's or analytical mathematician's success. But it goes far to explain the art of the infant calculators, who were successful in proportion as their minds became like slates or blackboards. Attention was almost everything to them, and it is oftentimes an easy virtue to a dull disposition, which has no temptation and little power to stray. It is plain from Colburn's "Memoir" that he unconsciously used, especially in squaring and extracting roots, devices which are now well known to arithmeticians and described in common text-books, and it says much for him that he discovered them. But on the whole, a retrospect makes one feel that the world has lost little by the disappearance of the juvenile calculator from the list of curiosities. Colburn was always puzzled as to the use of his gift, and we do not wonder at it.—*The Spectator*.

DON'T BE MELANCHOLY.—If we would habituate ourselves to look upon the pleasant side of things, to rejoice over what we have, and grieve not for what we have not, we should find ourselves much more pleasantly handled than what we usually are. We conceive it to be a shame, and when regarded in its connection a sin, to be moping about under such bright skies and over such pleasant fields with the "blues" on. Boys should be taught to cover up their melancholy thoughts as they would bury out of sight their dead canaries. Girls should be educated to the notion that "the dames" are not genteel, and that to be sad when there is no ground for it is vulgar. "Just as the tree is bent," etc. A generation we hope for, who will hold it a religious duty to reflect the happy face of nature from their happy faces. Everything so universally wheels into the right lines at last, and proves that "it is all for the best," that we verily believe a very long face ought to be put down as a nuisance in the street, and a bore within doors.

ESTIMATING MEASURES.

It is often useful to have a few approximate data to deduce weights and measures from. Here is a corrected table, which however, does not aim at great accuracy, but may serve to make a rough estimate when it is necessary to reduce measures:

A pint of water weighs nearly one pound, and is equal in bulk to about twenty-seven cubic inches or a square box three inches long, three inches wide and three inches deep.

A quart of water weighs nearly two pounds and is equal to a square box of about four by four inches and three and one-half inches deep.

A gallon of water weighs from eight to ten pounds, according to the size of the gallon, and is equal to a box, six by six inches square, and six, seven, or seven and a half inches deep.

A cubic foot of water weighs nearly sixty-three pounds (more correctly sixty-two and a-half pounds), and contains from seven to eight gallons, according to the kind of gallons used.

A peck is equal to a box eight by eight square, and eight inches deep.

A bushel almost fills a box twelve by twelve inches square, and twenty-four inches deep, or two cubic feet.

A barrel of water almost fills a box two by two feet square and one and a-half feet deep, or six cubic feet.

Petroleum barrels contain forty gallons, or nearly five cubic feet.—*Manufacturer and Builder.*

CUSTOM is a violent and treacherous schoolmistress. She, by little and little, slyly, and unperceived, slips in the foot of her authority, but having by this gentle and humble beginning, with the aid of time, fixed and established it, she then unmasks a furious and tyrannical countenance, against which we have no more the power nor the courage so much as to lift our eyes.—*Montaigne.*

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

LAST month we discussed the question of school reform on the economical side, *from without*, and came to the conclusion that it is not practicable to lessen the total cost of the schools without serious injury to the system, and that those would-be reformers who held out such hopes are simply counseling measures, not for the improvement, but for the destruction of all organized public education.

The steps contemplated by these parties are few and easy, and would lead directly and speedily to the desired object. First, abolish High Schools; then cut off from the lower schools all studies not deemed indispensable by these self-constituted judges; then reduce salaries so that competent teachers will not accept positions; finally, by thus lowering the character of the schools, drive out the children of all parents who are able to pay for the instruction of their children. We thus have as a residuum a set of pauper schools, bearing the same relation to private and denominational¹ schools as the alms house does to the family of a respectable citizen.

It is not difficult to foresee that this disintegration would be followed by a reintegration. The State organization being lost, the various religious denominations will contend for the ground which the State has abandoned. Every church edifice will have its school attached; and as the number of pupils remains the same, while the number of schools is doubled or trebled, the expense will be two or three times what it was under the State system, while poor and sparsely peopled districts (one-fourth of the whole State) will be left without any school at all.

It should never be forgotten that the economical question is not the comparative cost of *State* schools and *no* schools; but the comparative cost to the community considered as a unit, between schools organized and supported by the State, and schools organized by individual effort or by church agencies, and supported by the patrons alone. No reasonable and reasoning man can doubt that the latter is immensely more expensive, though the cost is differently distributed.

There remains, then, only the inquiry which we shall simply state without answering: Is it right that the property of the State should be compelled to educate the children of the State? Or, to put it in a different form: Granting that intelligence, founded on education, is essential to good citizenship; granting that a majority of all the citizens in the State are (or think they are) unable to educate their children; and granting again that the State has a right to appropriate so much of the property of its citizens as is necessary to maintain the healthy life of the State; is it right to take the money of those who have property to educate the children of those who have no property, and is it right that all citizens should have an equal share in the privileges thus provided?

II. We come now to the discussion of the questions of *reforms from within*. Is it possible by means of internal changes to procure for the

same money better education than our children now enjoy? The amount of money to be paid being considered at present as a fixed quantity, can we, by any means, get more for our money? This is the same economical question viewed from a different stand-point. It is the question that comes home to every housekeeper these hard times. His income is fixed, market prices are also fixed, how can he make what he buys *go farther*?

We have no hesitation in saying that reform in this direction is possible, and though difficult, yet practicable. There are at least four directions in which economy may be practised with advantage: *time, school material, studies and teachers.*

1. Economy of *time*. The State has levied taxes for the education of 150,000 children. The people have paid these taxes. The money has been expended. But the average attendance in the schools has been only 75,000 pupils. Consequently the State has obtained in education only half the amount that has been paid for. In reality the State has obtained even less than this; for it is well known to teachers that pupils who attend irregularly are a drawback on the classes of which they form a part. The absentees actually retard the progress of those who are present. True economy would suggest that since the whole time of a teacher must be paid for, the children should be sent regularly and constantly to school in order that the State may have full value for the money expended.

2. Economy of *school material*. We spend too much money for school books, and too little for blackboards, maps, globes, books of general information, and physical apparatus. Our schools are not half equipped for the work which they are expected to do. We pay nearly \$100,000 a year for the wear and tear of schoolbooks. By strict economy, by using only books that are indispensable, by rejecting all so-called *primary* grammars, arithmetics and geographies, one half of this sum might be saved and invested in books and apparatus that would be permanently useful. There is nothing gained by withholding from a workman the tools of his craft. We say we cannot afford to furnish teachers with the necessary appliances; but what should we think of a carpenter who undertook to do his work with a jack-knife, because he could not afford to buy saws, planes and chisels?

3. Economy of *studies*. We pay a great deal of money for teaching that which children never learn, or which they forget as soon as it is learned, or which being learned and remembered is utterly useless to them. It is not too much to say that at least one half of our ordinary school work belongs to one or another of these three classes. And teachers justify this extravagance on the "mental development" theory; as if the mind could not thrive as well on useful as on useless studies. Wise economy will not only employ all of a teacher's time; but it will provide that the time is spent in a way to yield the very best practical results. A revision of the course of common school studies, including fundamental changes in the prevalent methods of teaching, is necessary to secure to the people the full value of the school tax.

4. But above all we need economy of *teachers*. This implies at the very least that we shall employ the best teachers that can be obtained for the money at our command. It might imply more, for there is no economy in employing inefficient teachers at low salaries; but all that we insist on, for the present, is the truism that good teachers should have the preference at the salaries fixed. Yet it is matter of common observation that teachers are frequently selected, not on account of professional skill, but because they are good neighbors, or useful in the district, or are much in need of the salary, or have influential friends. Those who have appointments to make seem frequently to consider them in the light of a perquisite to be used for their personal gratification, or the gratification of their friends, rather than as a sacred trust to be administered with a single eye to the public good.

Economy of teachers implies moreover that teachers shall be distributed to the best advantage; that the right man shall be put in the right place. We have seen of late too many failures caused by trying to put square pegs in round holes.

Finally it implies the fixing of a reasonable number as the maximum of pupils to be assigned to one teacher. It is not economy, it is a frightful waste of public money, to crowd sixty, seventy, or (as occasionally happens) eighty pupils upon one teacher. To say nothing of the waste of human life—teachers' and pupils'—involved in such a procedure, we protest against the waste of the money. A horse that can draw a ton weight, though slowly and with difficulty, refuses to move when you pile five tons on the wagon. The educational car moves slowly enough with thirty or forty children to one teacher. When the number is doubled, progress is stopped. The car simply stands still. The teacher draws—nothing but his salary.

AMONG THE SCHOOLS.

"A chiel's amang us takin' notes,
And faith he'll prent it."

Carroll County.—A visit to the public schools at Westminster, Carrollton, Sandymount, Finksburg, Louisville and Mahlons in the last week of October confirms the impression formerly made on our mind, that education in Carroll is looking up. Clean and comfortable houses, bright and happy children, active and kindly teachers—nothing seemed to be wanting. A public meeting at Finksburg, though held on a dark and stormy night, was so well attended that we became convinced that one, and not the least important cause of this happy state of affairs, is to be found in the fact that the people themselves are deeply interested in their schools. Mr. Horner, of the board of local trustees, was chairman of the meeting. Able addresses were delivered by the Examiner, Mr. Newson, and F. L. Hering, School Commissioner.

Frederick County is stepping out in the line of new school houses. The purchase of a handsome and commodious house in Frederick City two years

ago for the use of the West End Female School, so long and so ably conducted by Miss Helen J. Rowe, seems to have given an impetus to school architecture throughout the county. We inspected, lately, three brick houses now building, which combine in an unusual degree economy with comfort and durability. The school house at Buckeystown contains two rooms, each 30x21 feet, with a square tower in front, which forms a very convenient vestibule. The house at Walkersville is built near the centre of a beautiful lot of one acre, donated by a liberal citizen of the town. The new house at Liberty will be the largest in the county, excepting Frederick City. It will accommodate about two hundred pupils. All the houses referred to are built neatly and substantially. The ceilings are sufficiently high; the walls are wainscotted up to the window sills. The windows are well arranged so as to give protection to the eyes of the pupils. The spaces between the windows are filled with black-board surface. Patent folding-desks will be placed in all the rooms, and convenient platforms for the teachers. One thing only seems to be wanting. There is no ventilation except by doors and windows.

Somerset.—The Academy at Princess Anne is an old and somewhat celebrated school. Some years ago it was turned over to the county school board and became the county high school. The grammar and primary departments are in the same building. The house is rather dilapidated, and looks as if it had suffered both from tear and wear; but there is very good work done inside. We heard a class translate quite intelligently in the fifth book of the *Aeneid*, and in *Xenophon's Anabasis*. A small class in French seemed greatly interested in "The Romance of a Poor Young Man."

Wicomico.—The Salisbury schools are well filled. The High School keeps up its old reputation. We listened with pleasure to a recitation in *Cæsar*, and we never before heard *Cæsar* translated so intelligently and with such precise accuracy by any class of similar grade. An examination in spelling, however, showed that the primary and grammar schools, from which the pupils had been promoted, are a little below concert pitch. The colored schools in the vicinity of Salisbury are in good condition and well attended. The usual ambition to get into "higher branches" is not wanting, and should be utilized to secure thoroughness in the lower, as an essential condition of promotion. We congratulate our friends in *Wicomico* on the fact that their Examiner, Mr. George W. M. Cooper, has taken to himself a wife, lately one of our best teachers. He will be as good as two men henceforward.

Worcester.—The Berlin High Schools still keep up the old traditions—the "Academy" for boys and the "Seminary" for girls. We asked an intelligent citizen why boys and girls, who could meet on equal terms in church, at the Sunday-school, at picnics, at social gatherings, in the streets—every where else in fact—must be kept apart in school. He gave it up. So do we. But both high schools are doing good work, though they are

not doing as much of it as could be accomplished under a different organization. The principal of the "Seminary" is a graduate of the State Normal School. The principal of the "Academy" is a graduate of Saint John's College.

The schools at Snow Hill are mixed—as they ought to be—and at Newtown also. (We beg pardon; it is *Pocomoke City* now.) In both places the classes are well filled, and the pupils making good progress. Pocomoke has, we believe, the largest school-house and the most populous school on the Eastern Shore. The classes in Algebra made a particularly favorable impression on the visitors.

A new and very comfortable house for a graded school with two teachers has lately been built in the thriving town of Stockton, near the Virginia line. The lot contains an acre. It is neatly fenced, has a good well, and a commodious wood-shed secured by a lock, and all the other necessary out-buildings. The old school house is now occupied by colored children.

We were much struck with the evident signs of thrift and comfort to be seen on every side in the three lower counties of the Eastern Shore. The villages have lost the *finished* aspect which marked them some years ago. New houses are springing up all around; the fields show improved cultivation; the old ditches are better kept, and new drainage is under way where it is needed; the fences are in good repair; white-wash and paint have been liberally applied to barns and dwelling-houses; and there are more high schools to the square mile, *more boys and girls learning Latin and Greek*, than in any other district in Maryland of equal population.

Dorchester.—The letter of our esteemed correspondent, who furnishes the following facts, should have appeared last month, but was crowded out. Seventy-seven schools with eighty-five teachers for white children opened September 16, to run at least nine months. Twenty-six schools with twenty-seven teachers for colored children opened Nov. 1.

Several new houses for white and colored are in course of erection; all the old houses have been repaired. Rigid economy in incidental expenses is required of all concerned. There is a growing interest in the community for higher education. The valuable scholarships at the State Colleges make it more and more necessary that at least elementary instruction in the languages should be furnished some of our pupils.

Our method of grading schools, by having one first grade school in each election district, with the addition of the academies, affords advantages for thorough preparation in English; but the study of the classics is impossible, except in the academies, under our present system of low salaries in the first grade schools. If these included the languages in their course, we could not expect more advantages with our present limited means. An addition of 1,000 or 1,200 dollars to our present expenses would give us teachers capable of teaching the languages in the twelve or thirteen first grade schools, so located that all could attend them who desired the higher grade of instruction.

A late examination of our list of taxables shows a very small number who pay on property exceeding \$10,000. The main bulk of the taxes is paid by the men of moderate means, who have children to be educated and who are not able to send them away from home. This examination disproves the assertion that the "rich" are supporting the schools. It is by the contributions of the men of limited means, who pay small taxes individually, but amounting to a large sum when paid by the vast majority of our tax-payers, that the necessary funds are raised for the childrens' education.

It seems proper and right, therefore, that the full advantages of our system should be offered to all, and that higher education should be placed within the reach of all, by having at least one first grade school, in which Latin, if no more is taught, in each election district. J. L. B.

Harford.—The fourth district Teachers' Association met at Jarrettsville November 20th. About half the members were present. The exercises were interesting and improving. The next meeting will be held at the same place on the 7th of December at 1 P. M. All the teachers of the district are expected to attend. The Secretary will please send an account of the proceedings to this *Journal*.

Talbot County had a good system of common schools before the organization of the State system, and the start thus acquired has not been lost. In no other county are public schools better patronized or more carefully managed. The three high schools at Easton, St. Michael's and Trappe form the keystone of the arch, and bind the lower parts of the structure into a compact and harmonious system. At St. Michael's we were sorry to miss the familiar presence of the former principal, Mr. George D. Hadaway, who reigned so long and so well over the young St. Michaelites, but his mantle seems to have fallen upon a worthy successor.

Returning from St. Michael's to Easton, we stopped at a way-side school house. In Summer the location on the edge of a small piece of woods is pretty enough; but in the late Fall, an unfenced lot at a cross-road has rather a cheerless aspect. The house is one of the smallest in the county or in any county. It is probably 16x20 feet in the clear. The ceiling is not over eight feet high. The plastering has been so often repaired by boards, that the room is wainscotted almost to the ceiling. The desks are of the oldest style, placed with back to the walls on two sides of the room, and leaving an open floor-space, most of which is filled by a ten-plate stove. But within this humble school house a good fairy had been at work, and the marks of taste and order were plainly visible. The floor was free from dust, the windows were clean and bright, the walls, freshly whitewashed, were ornamented with brackets, pictures, and fall leaves; and round the whole interior of the room ran a cornice of freshly gathered holly sparkling with crimson berries. One of these days there will be a larger and loftier house on the site of this cot; it will be furnished with patent desks, and wall-maps, and globes, and black-board, surface by the square rod; but it is

doubtful if any of our "modern improvements" will ever compensate for the lack of such a loving heart and such a patient spirit, and such helpful hands as now rule the destinies of the wayside school house.

From Easton to Federalsburg our way led through a flat but interesting country. The morning was stormy, but at every turn of the road we met boys and girls in groups on their way to school; not "creeping like snail unwillingly," but "with shining morning faces" and quick elastic step, that showed they were bent on a pleasant errand. To look at their countenances was almost equivalent to visiting their schools. They bore the impress of healthful mental exercise. At Federalsburg there are two excellent schools; the one on the Caroline side of the line is taught by a graduate of the Maryland State Normal School; that on the Dorchester side by a graduate of the State Normal school of New Jersey. Both were working together at the time of our visit for a grand exhibition which was to come off (and no doubt did come off) in the evening. The Dorchester school house is in many respects a model building for a country school with but one teacher.

THE San Francisco correspondent of the *Baltimore Sun* says that "a central school for truants is favored by public sentiment" in that city. "The law makes attendance compulsory; but the streets are full of little schoolless vagabonds, learning hoodlumism. Other means failing, this centralization, under special officials, promises to effect the object. Every youngster will be overhauled and schooled. But unless some trade is taught by which industry is inculcated and honest support put within reach, universal book-learning will but invent ingenious variations of hoodlumism, more vicious than ever. Musical instruction and mechanical drawing are to be continued, but the burden of expense is to be removed by abolishing special teachers of those branches. Regular teachers must be qualified to add these branches to their regular course. The same will be required with French and German languages. A very large reduction can thus be made in cost without impairing the instruction. The new constitution will undoubtedly make mechanical instruction compulsory, and the abolition of much superfluous minutiae will give plenty of time for the more useful instructions. There is a well-founded preference given here to women teachers, based on their long-tried merits."

MISS LAURA I. HOOKER, a youthful but very efficient and deservedly popular teacher, now in charge of the public school at Middletown, 12th election district in Carroll County, has resigned her position, having been called to a sphere more agreeable to her, still to continue, however, in the line of her chosen profession, to which she has on all occasions shown so much devotion, and in which she has served so faithfully and acceptably, having in a brief period earned a very high reputation as a successful teacher. Deep regret for her withdrawal from the public school service,

and the best wishes of pupils, parents, trustees and other school officials to whom she has been so pleasantly related, will follow Miss Hooper to her new situation near Baltimore city. J. M. N.

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M. A. NEWELL,

Principal of the State Normal School,

CHAS. G. EDWARDS,

Pres't Teachers' Ass'n of Baltimore,

EDITORS.

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No. 4.

TEXT-BOOKS AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION
IN ENGLISH.

BY JAMES M. GARNETT, LL.D., PRINCIPAL OF ST. JOHN'S
COLLEGE, ANNAPOLIS, MD.

[Read before the Educational Association of Virginia, July 14, 1878.]

It was with much hesitation that I accepted the invitation of your recent President to read before this Association a report on "Text-books and Methods of Instruction in English, especially as studied in colleges and universities." But my desire to renew old acquaintanceship, and to endeavor to further a study in which I am much interested, finally prevailed. If I may be pardoned the personal allusion, it is just ten years since I had the honor to read before this Association, at its meeting in Richmond, a report on "Text-books for Instruction in Greek," and at that time I little thought that I should ever devote myself to any special study but that of the classical languages; but a year's study in Germany, and an examination of the course taught in the gymnasia, convinced me that our Virginia schools paid too little attention to the study of History and of English. I knew that we were strong in the Classics and in Mathematics, and some schools in Modern

Languages also ; but the study of history and the study of the vernacular were comparatively, if not altogether, neglected, and I mentally resolved, if I should resume teaching in Virginia, to try to change that. Circumstances, however, called me to our neighboring State, and in my position there I found that these were just the subjects which it devolved upon me to teach. I therefore went to work, and have been for eight years now trying to do something in this direction ; and this report must be but little more than the result of my observation and experience during that time.

The importance of the subject seems to me to be self-evident ; but as the question may be asked, What is the object of teaching English ? I shall try to give a very brief answer to it. It resolves itself at first glance into the more general question, What is the object of teaching anything ? For in the answer to that it will assuredly find its place. But we have heard so much in all addresses on " Education " about " drawing out " the powers of the mind, that I shall spare the Association the discussion of this point. There must, however, be something there to " draw." We cannot, unfortunately, *see* the powers of the mind, and we cannot know but by experience how they manifest themselves. There must be some *means* for their exercise, some medium through which and in which they can display tangible results ; and just here our friends, the scientists, find one of their strongest arguments for early instruction in Natural History. But for linguists the knowledge of one's own language, and of the thoughts contained in it, is the means *par excellence* for thus training the mind. It is the best means for the young student, and must be for many the *only* means ; for now, more than ever, a very large proportion of those who attend our schools are deprived of the benefits of classical training. Far be it from me to disparage classical culture ; but we must provide for all, and where *it* cannot be obtained, the study of our own language must serve as a substitute. And in the study of the Classics all teachers must have observed how hard it is even for advanced students to

grasp intelligently the thought of the author. I was much struck by a remark of the Rev. R. H. Quick, the English writer on education, in a recent address on "Examination Papers," that a class in Cæsar failed utterly to give the story contained in certain passages which had been read in class, but that contained in a passage not read, and of which he had told them the story, they reproduced accurately. This shows, and it is the experience of other teachers besides Mr. Quick, that boys do not exercise thought on the subject-matter of the text, and the language serves simply as an exercise in mental gymnastics—a very good exercise I grant—but we want something more than that, and boys should make what they read a part of their mental furniture.

If I may draw upon my own experience, I have found that only after much practice will boys give fluently and accurately the contents of a poem, or part of a poem, assigned for their study, a Scene or an Act of one of Shakspeare's plays, or a portion of one of Chaucer's Canterbury Tales. We cannot dissociate the study of the language and the literature, and this then is one good purpose which the study of our own language subserves. It enables students to carry on a continuous train of thought which they understand, to become fluent in the expression of their own thoughts, and thoroughly familiar with certain portions of our literature, which will lead them to other portions, and thus foster a taste for reading, by which they can educate themselves; for, after all that we have done for our pupils, if we have not induced a taste for reading, and a desire to know the works of the great masters of our language, we have failed to educate them.

The limits of this paper will not permit further development of these ideas; but if we have trained our pupils to think and to express their thoughts, and especially to be fond of English literature, we have, I think, done our part, and it is their own fault if they do not become educated men.

[Since writing this paper, I have read an article on "Johnson's Lives," by Matthew Arnold, in the June (1878) number

of *Macmillan's Magazine* (reprinted in the *Popular Science Monthly Supplement* for July), and I cannot forbear quoting briefly some of his remarks, as illustrating better than anything I could say my idea of the plan on which English literature should be taught. He says: "It is interesting to lay out in one's mind the ideal line of study to be followed by all who have to learn Latin and Greek. But it is still more interesting to lay out the ideal line of study to be followed by all who are concerned with that body of literature which exists in English, because this class is so much more numerous amongst us. The thing would be, one imagines, to begin with a very brief introductory sketch of our subject; then to fix a certain series of works to serve as what the French, taking an expression from the builder's business, call *points de repère*—points which stand as so many natural centres, and by returning to which we can always find our way again, if we are embarrassed; finally, to mark out a number of illustrative and representative works, connecting themselves with each of these *points de repère*." These points for the period in question, Mr. Arnold finds in Johnson's Lives of Milton, Dryden, Swift, Addison, Pope and Gray, and he remarks: "I know of no such first-rate piece of literature for supplying in this way the wants of the literary student existing at all in any other language, or existing in our own language for any period except the period which Johnson's six Lives cover. A student cannot read them without gaining from them, consciously or unconsciously, an insight into the history of English literature and life. He would find great benefit, let me add, from reading in connection with each biography something of the author with whom he deals." After specifying certain works of each author to be read, he says: "From Johnson's biographies the student will get a sense of what the real men were, and with this sense fresh in his mind he will find the occasion propitious for acquiring also, in the way pointed out, a sense of the power of their works. This will seem to most people a very unambitious discipline. But the fault of most of the disciplines

proposed in education is that they are by far too ambitious. Our improvers of education are almost always for proceeding by way of augmentation and complication ; reduction and simplification, I say, is what is rather required. We give the learner too much to do, and we are over-zealous to tell him what he ought to think." After quoting Dr. Johnson's remark, that "Judgment is forced upon us by experience," he continues : "The aim and end of education through letters is to get this experience. The discipline, therefore, which puts us in the way of getting it cannot be called an inconsiderable or inefficacious one."

"It is much to secure the reading, by young English people, of the lives of the six chief poets of our nation between the years 1650 and 1750, related by our foremost man of letters in the eighteenth century. It is much to secure their reading, under the stimulus of Johnson's interesting recital and forcible judgments, famous specimens of the authors whose lives are before them. Do not let us insist on also reviewing in detail and supplementing Johnson's work for them, or telling them what they ought really and definitively to think about the six authors, and about the exact place of each in English literature. Perhaps our pupils are not ripe for it ; perhaps, too, we have not Johnson's interest and Johnson's force ; we are not the power for letters in our century which he was for his. We may be pedantic, obscure, dull, everything that bores, rather than everything that attracts ; and so Johnson and his *Lives* will repel, and will not be received, because we insist on being received along with them."

"I should like, therefore, to reprint Johnson's six chief *Lives*, and to leave the *Lives* in that natural form, to have their effect upon the reader.* I should like to think that a number of young people might thus be brought to know an important period of our literary and intellectual history, by means of the lives of six of its leading and representative

* These *Lives* have been reprinted by Macmillan & Co., and by Holt & Co., New York ; and this article of Mr. Arnold serves as a Preface to the work.

authors, told by a great man. I should like to think that they would go on, under the stimulus of the lives, to acquaint themselves with some leading and representative work of each author. In the six lives they would at least have secured, I think, a most valuable *point de repère* in the history of our English life and literature, a point from which afterwards to find their way, whether they might desire to ascend upwards to our anterior literature, or to come downwards to the literature of yesterday and of the present."

I have thus quoted, at greater length than I intended, the opinion of one of the foremost literary men of the present day as to how English literature should be taught and studied, and we may apply this plan to other periods than the one mentioned. Then our pupils would leave us with a thorough knowledge of at least a few representative men and works in English literature, and with a method of study which they could afterwards apply for themselves under the stimulus already gained. I may mention in this connection that Macmillan & Co. announce that they are about to publish, under the editorship of Mr. John Morley, a series of works entitled "English Men of Letters," prepared by the most distinguished writers in England. The following are already in hand, and others will follow, viz: Spenser, Hume, Bunyan, Johnson, Goldsmith, Dickens, Milton, Wordsworth, Swift, Burns, Scott, Shelley, Gibbon, Byron and Defoe.*]

Another main object, however, in the study of English, and the one which I shall chiefly consider in this paper, is to know its *historical origin and structure*. I do not insist upon this knowledge as indispensable to a correct use of the language, for many of the great writers in English literature have lacked it, but we do not expect that the embryo great writers will come under our instruction, and for the mass such knowledge will contribute to the correctness and facility with which they will use the language, and, as a means of mental discipline,

* This series is reprinted by Harper & Bros., New York, and Johnson, Scott and Gibbon have already been published.

this method of study is unsurpassed. Without fear of contradiction from those who know the language historically, I would say that no study in the whole curriculum is superior to the historical study of English as a means of mental discipline and of mental culture. It has the advantages in those respects which are claimed for the classical languages; it has the additional advantages of illustrating and being illustrated by the two chief modern languages, French and German; and as the study of the language in all periods is inseparable from the study of the literature, it has the advantage also of acquainting the student with the whole field of English literature from the "Beowulf" to Chaucer, and from Chaucer to Tennyson.

Our present language possesses a historical development and growth, and it is important that this fact should be brought out and made use of in instruction. Modern English has not sprung, Minerva-like, from the head of some linguistic Jove, but has followed the ordinary course of human descent, and to understand the genius of the child we must acquaint ourselves with its ancestry. The language has, however, in the course of its development been affected from various sources; it has not pursued the even tenor of its way uninterrupted by external influences, but has been continually modified at one point and another, has lost in some respects and gained in others, but always preserving such continuity that it can be readily traced back to its origin. This results from the fact that it is its vocabulary which has been chiefly affected, so that it has become a conglomerate. English is not "a mixed language," in Mr. J. C. Clough's sense of that term, who, in his recent interesting essay on "Mixed Languages," with special reference to English, endeavors to prove that English is in every sense of the word a mixed language, but I think that he has failed to sustain the position. Its grammatical structure is *not* mixed, although its vocabulary is "very much mixed." We must classify a language not by its words, but by its grammatical structure, and although that has been very much

changed in the course of time, it has been changed in obedience to certain laws, chiefly phonetic, so that the line of development has been well preserved, and there has been no abrupt dislocation. These changes have been more rapid at certain times than at others, according to the causes which affected the language, and while, during certain stages of its development, it presents marked differences when viewed at intervals of a hundred years or more, it is very difficult to say when the language ceased to exhibit one form and presented another—when, for instance, Anglo-Saxon became Semi-Saxon, or Semi-Saxon, Early English, and this can only be determined approximately. This very continuity has, therefore, caused several distinguished members of the modern school of English philologists to discard the term “Anglo-Saxon” and substitute “Old English” for it, but, without stopping to discuss the question, I would merely say that there are several practical difficulties in the way, which would lead us, with most, if not all American philologists, to retain the term “Anglo-Saxon,” long sanctioned by use and practically answering its purpose very well.

In taking up *the historical study of English*, we must presuppose a knowledge of the ordinary English grammar—I wish I could say such a knowledge of English as your former President, Professor Thomas R. Price, well insisted on last year before the National Educational Association, as a necessary introduction to the study of Latin and Greek, but I fear we shall have to wait long years before his ideas will find their way into our schools.* Presupposing this modicum of knowledge of present English, as we go back from century to century, from the known to the unknown, we shall find more and more that we do not understand, and it is the office of the teacher to cause the pupil to understand this. At first, perhaps, it will simply be words that have become obsolete or are now archaic. We find such in Milton and in our English

* Prof. Price's Paper is published in the Proceedings of the National Educational Association for 1877.

Bible, and they need explanation for the pupil. Then will come remnants of inflectional forms, and peculiar turns of phrase, with many more words and expressions no longer in current use. We find such in Spenser and Shakspeare, in the latter, indeed, in such profusion as to have led the Rev. Dr. Abbott, Head Master of the City of London School, to prepare his excellent "Shakspearean Grammar" for the purpose of illustrating fully Elizabethan English, as used by the dramatists, especially by Shakspeare. As we keep on back, we shall find still more that is unfamiliar—and I may add, therefore, unread, for who is there now, in the general public, that reads English antecedent to Spenser and Shakspeare?—until we get back to Chaucer, who requires something more than a glossary for his elucidation, although readily understood with a little patient study, and not requiring to be "put into *good English*," as I recently heard desired by an intelligent and well-educated young lady. I could but reply that it was as "*good English*" as our fathers of that day knew how to write, and it was our misfortune and reproach that it was no longer generally understood. I think no better argument needed for more general and thorough instruction in English in our schools than the fact that such a wish could at this day be uttered. We should teach our pupils to understand that the spelling of Chaucer is not uncouth—as is still supposed by some very intelligent people—that it is as good, if not better, than modern spelling, though not always consistent,† and that much which is thought to be bad, or at least antiquated, spelling is really an integral part of the grammar, or inflectional

† With respect to the printing of Chaucer's words in uniform spelling. Mr. Furnivall says, in his "Temporary Preface to the Six-Text Edition of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*" (p. 114), "to force a uniform spelling on Chaucer—by whatever process arrived at—would be to force a lie on him and on the history of the English language: an evil for which no fancied gain in convenience of teaching boys could compensate. Before him for hundreds of years there was no uniformity; after him for centuries, none: why in the works of him—the free and playful—above all others, are letters to lose their power of wandering at their own sweet will; why are words to be debarred their rightful inheritance of varying their forms? This notion of a uniform spelling as applied to Chaucer's words is to me a Monster, bred by Artificialness out of False Analogy."

structure of the language, which would be clearly seen by a study of a little older English. Here then comes in the necessity for the study of that older English, or *Anglo-Saxon*.

We cannot get back beyond Chaucer intelligently without it, and while Chaucer himself may be read and enjoyed, his language cannot be *thoroughly* understood without a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. If necessary, we might here make a dividing line in our English course. There is no high school or academy in the land, public or private, which cannot and which should not have its full course of study in English, extending back to Chaucer inclusive. This would involve some instruction in historical English grammar, and consequently some knowledge of Anglo-Saxon inflections as antecedents of the Chaucerian and later English forms, but not sufficient to enable the pupil to read the Anglo-Saxon literature and to appreciate the distinctively Semi-Saxon and Early English works, which, together, cover the whole period from King Alfred to Chaucer. To teach Chaucer, however, the teacher himself should make it a point to learn Anglo-Saxon and the intermediate stages of the language, or he will be at a great disadvantage.

For the elementary course in higher English, here briefly sketched out, several series of editions of the English classics, in cheap and handy form, annotated by scholars, have been published in England for use in school and college, for the India Civil Service examinations and for the Oxford and Cambridge Local examinations. Those which I have seen advertised are Chambers' "Reprints of English Classics," Collins' "College Classics," Rivington's "English School Classics," Longman's "Annotated Poems of English Authors,"* and "London Series of English Classics," and Macmillan's "Clarendon Press Series," which last are more readily accessible in this country, as these publishers have a New York branch, and I can personally testify to the value of all the works of this series which I have used. Among these we find selected works

* This series is republished by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

of Scott, Wordsworth, Goldsmith, Gray, Burke, Milton, Bacon, Spenser, Hooker, Shakspeare and Chaucer, but, as might naturally be expected, the works of Milton and Shakspeare preponderate, and in the limited time which can be given to any single study in our school curriculum these great writers would doubtless be selected in preference to all others. I would mention, as specially deserving of notice, the editions of separate plays of Shakspeare, published in the Clarendon Press Series, and edited by Messrs. Clark and Wright, editors of the "Cambridge Shakspeare." Nine plays have so far been issued.

I would also mention with commendation Hales' "Longer English Poems," published by Macmillan & Co., and edited by Mr. J. W. Hales, Professor of English in King's College, London. It consists of entire poems of different writers from Spenser to Keats, well annotated, and bristling with classical allusions and quotations, which may make it specially acceptable to our teachers of the ancient classics. For the study of Chaucer we have, in the Clarendon Press Series, Morris' "Prologue, Knight's Tale, and Nun's Priest's Tale," edited by the Rev. Dr. Richard Morris, Principal of King's College School, London, and editor of various works for the Early English Text Society—one to whom English philology is greatly indebted. The introduction to this little volume contains a full outline of Chaucer's grammar, abridged from the well-known treatise of our distinguished Chaucerian scholar, Prof. F. J. Child, of Harvard University. There have been also published in this series two other volumes of selections from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, edited by the Rev. W. W. Skeat, editor of Langland's "*Piers Plowman*," for the E. E. T. Society, and recently chosen Professor of Anglo-Saxon in Cambridge University.

Our scholars in this country have not done much of the kind of work above noted for popularizing English literature, and putting its great works in a form suitable for instruction in schools. They have generally confined themselves to preparing volumes of "Specimens of English Literature," which consists of chopping up a series of works from Chaucer down,

some of them even going back to translations of Cædmon, and selecting what the compiler happens to think a pretty piece, often without beginning and without end, to set before the youthful mind—a most vicious way of trying to teach English literature, which cannot be sufficiently condemned. There are some exceptions, but they are few, and limited chiefly to the works of Shakspeare and Chaucer.

The Rev. H. N. Hudson has published his "School Shakspeare" in three volumes, containing the plays annotated for school use, and some of them may be obtained separately in paper, issued by Ginn & Heath, Boston.* Mr. W. J. Rolfe, editor of Craik's "English of Shakspeare," a very useful work, has published some half dozen of the plays, fully annotated and with references to Abbott's "Shakspearean Grammar." He has also edited recently some of Gray's and of Goldsmith's works, similarly annotated, all issued by the Harpers, New York. Prof. S. H. Carpenter, of the University of Wisconsin, has edited Chaucer's "Prologue and Knight's Tale," under the title "English of the XIVth Century," with annotations, if anything almost too full; and Prof. T. R. Lounsbury, of Yale College, has recently given us an excellent edition of Chaucer's "Parlament of Foules," both works published by Ginn & Heath.†

For the illustration of Shakspeare, I should also mention Fleay's "Shakspeare Manual" (published by Macmillan & Co.), a useful work, if due allowance be made for some of the author's conclusions, and showing a considerable amount of careful work at Shakspeare. Mr. Fleay has published, too, a brief "Introduction to the Study of Shakspeare and Spenser," and a similar one for "Chaucer," but I have not had the opportunity of examining them. I would speak more decidedly as to the value of Dowden's "Shakspeare Primer" (in the series of Literature Primers published by Macmillan & Co., and re-

* Mr. Hudson has also published "Text-books of Prose and Poetry," in which the selections are mostly given entire.

† Prof. H. Corson, of Cornell University, published some years ago an edition of Chaucer's "Legend of Good Women," which is now unfortunately out of print: it deserves to be reprinted.

printed by Appleton & Co., New York), which should be in the hands of every student of Shakspeare. This series also contains a Primer of "English Grammar," by Rev. Dr. Morris, and one of "English Literature," by Rev. Stopford Brooke, which may serve as an excellent outline of the history of English literature, and I would say just here, parenthetically, that I am not of those who look down upon the use of all manuals of the history of English literature, for I fail to see how else boys can get an idea of the continuity of that history and of the development of the literature, and know what writers to study, and what to reject—but I cannot stop to discuss the matter. We still await the "Chaucer Primer," promised for this series by Mr. F. J. Furnivall, Director of the Chaucer Society, the Early English Text Society, and the New Shakspeare Society; it is to be hoped that we may have it soon. For the study of historical English grammar, in connection with the course hitherto outlined, the only work as yet accessible as a text-book is Dr. Morris' "Elementary Lessons in Historical English Grammar" (published by Macmillan & Co.), which is a rearrangement and abridgment of the author's fuller "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," issued a few years ago, but not so suitable for a school text-book. I had occasion to notice this work at some length in the *Educational Journal of Virginia* for July, 1875, and after the practical test of the class-room, I would reiterate the favorable opinion then expressed as to its value, but I think it might be improved for purposes of instruction. It is not intended for mere beginners, but for advanced classes in high schools and academies, and the lower classes in colleges, and will be found very useful for giving them some idea of the historical development of our language. I would close this notice of text-books by simply calling attention to Gostwick's "English Grammar, Historical and Analytical" (just published by Longmans & Co., London), a copy of which I procured only a few days ago, and have not had the opportunity of examining carefully, but I have read a very commendatory notice of it in the *Saturday Review*.

FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSICS.

BY G. L. SMITH.

III.—ACOUSTICS.

T.—Take a piece of string; wax it and stretch it tightly between two points, like the string of a guitar or violin. Take hold of it near the middle, pull it one side a little and then suddenly let go. Does the string remain in this last position?

P.—No; it springs back to the place where it started from.

T.—Does it stop when it has reached its starting point?

P.—It passes beyond the starting point and then back again, vibrating for a few seconds, and then becomes quiet just where it was before I touched it.

T.—Suppose this string was made of putty and I pulled it one side and let go in the same way, would it vibrate and come to rest at the starting point, as the string did?

P.—No; it would stay where you placed it.

T.—Why is it, then, that the string will vibrate and the putty will not?

P.—The *string is elastic*, and when stretched springs back to its original position, but the *putty is not elastic* and has not this power of regaining its original position.

T.—But what causes the string to go back beyond its original position, as you said it did a few minutes ago?

P.—It goes back so fast that it can't stop at once, any more than I can stop at once when I am running down hill.

T.—Yes; the string acquires a certain force, which we call *inertia*, and this carries it beyond its original quiet position, and then its elasticity brings it back and on the other side of the starting point, but not quite so far this time, and this keeps up until, finally, the elasticity overcomes the inertia and the string stops vibrating. You noticed that, when the string was vibrating, a sound was produced; and all elastic bodies which produce a sound when vibrating are called *sonorous* bodies. If I strike this bell with my pencil, it produces a sound.

P.—I don't see it vibrate.

T.—The vibrations in this bell are much smaller than they were in the string, but let us try to prove that it is vibrating while the sound comes from it. Fasten a marble or, better, a round glass button to a string, and let it hang so that it just touches the bell, while I strike it with my pencil again, and notice what happens to the marble.

P.—It keeps jumping up and down against the bell.

T.—But what causes this motion? I am not moving the bell.

P.—It must be the vibrations of the bell, for now the sound has stopped and the marble don't move.

T.—We might try this in different ways with any sonorous body, and thus prove that *all sound comes from the vibrations of elastic bodies*. Suppose, now, that you put your hands over your ears, and I strike the bell, why don't you hear it?

P.—Because my hands stop the vibrations from coming to my ear.

T.—But when you remove your hands, what is it that vibrates and produces the effect upon your ear? Surely the particles of the bell do not make such long vibrations, for you can hear it across the room.

P.—The bell must make the air, which is very elastic, vibrate, just as it did the marble, and this vibrating air strikes my ear.

T.—Yes; the *air acts as a medium for transmitting the vibrations of sonorous bodies to the ear*. But *solids and liquids* are capable of doing the same thing. Place your ear at one end of this long stick, and I will scratch with a pin on the other end so softly that the rest of the class can't hear it, yet you hear it very distinctly. As for liquids transmitting sound vibrations, you can easily prove that they do by striking two stones or your hands together when you are in bathing and have your head under water; they will be heard distinctly. If we were to suspend a bell in a large glass globe and shake it a little, we could hear the bell ring, but after exhausting the air by means of an air-pump, we might shake it and see the

clapper strike the bell and yet hear no sound, because there was no air or other medium surrounding it to transmit the vibrations to our ears—thus, we see that *a transmitting medium is necessary for the production of sound*. Now arrange yourselves in a ring around this bell, and one get upon this desk, while another gets down with his head as close as he can on the floor, do you all hear it?

P.—We do.

T.—Then what can you say of the direction in which the vibrations of the air move from the sonorous body?

P.—*The vibrations of air move in all directions from the sonorous body.*

T.—Did you ever notice a man at a distance felling a tree, and see how his axe struck the tree long before you heard the sound; what is the cause of this?

P.—It must take the sound vibrations some time to travel so far.

T.—Yes; and if you went very near the man you would not notice the difference, because the sound would not have so far to travel. This *velocity* has been measured very accurately, and is about *1,120 feet per second*. Let us see if we can make use of this fact. Can you tell me what thunder is?

P.—It is the noise made when lightning passes through the air.

T.—The lightning causes the air to vibrate, and when the vibrations reach our ears we say that it thunders, but how fast do these vibrations travel?

P.—One thousand one hundred and twenty feet per second.

T.—And how long would it take them to travel a mile?

P.—A little less than five seconds.

T.—Then if you count seconds, which you can do by counting with the ticks of a clock, after you see a flash of lightning until you hear the thunder, and divide by five, you will know how many miles the lightning was from you. Thus, if ten seconds elapsed between the time that you saw the flash of lightning and heard the thunder, the lightning must have been two miles off.

WHAT CAN THE SCHOOL DO TO PREVENT RUDENESS?

BY V. SCHEER. .

[Translated from the "Rheinische Blätter."]

Every age has undoubtedly its bright side and its dark side. The writer of this article does not belong to those who, when they get older, see everything through dim glasses, become the eulogists of the past, and assume a general degeneracy. On the contrary, he who is thoroughly versed in history, and is a close observer of the present, will recognize the general progress of mankind. It cannot be denied, indeed, that in our times many *vices* exist, which sorely affect the thinking man, and cause him to look with deep anxiety into the future. These phenomena are sometimes represented as levity, sometimes as immorality, but the word "rudeness" seems to describe them most suitably. Let it not, however, be assumed that I merely mean the sudden breaking forth of insolence and indecency, which we meet with, here and there, in the lower orders of society. Rudeness, such as I mean, is not unfrequently joined with an immoderate desire of enjoyment and exterior refinement. It has frequently been insinuated that the increase of school-education lays the foundation of this rudeness. This I shall not refute, for it has been confuted long ago to the satisfaction of every intelligent man. A real expansion of mind and furtherance of intelligence cannot have as a natural consequence the deterioration of morals. Besides, for many a fault, to which reference is made in this assertion, home-education might be shown to be chiefly responsible, and that, in all classes of society. The forward conduct of children, their disobedience unpunished, or even unrebuked, their want of respect to old people, even to their parents, the early-awakened desires of enjoyment, lay the foundation of subsequent immorality and rudeness. It is another question, however, whether the school can do anything to obviate and remedy

the evils just named ; if it is the business of the school to take notice of the signs of the times, then it is also its duty to earnestly ponder this question, and not inconsiderately console itself with the idea that it can do nothing.

The *habit of obedience* takes the first place in the school. Justly, those times are passed, in which the system of the *breaking of the will* was so popular and prevalent ; but since all morality consists in one's free submission to the laws of the State, and to the commands of reason and conscience, the child must subject his will to that of another, in those years in which self-determination is 'wanting'. The want of home-discipline must be made up in the school ; school-discipline must, therefore, never be lost sight of by the teacher. Besides the fact that instruction cannot be accompanied with good results without the support of discipline, discipline has a still higher aim, namely, the formation of the *habit* of morality. It is my firm conviction that the educator cannot do a greater benefit to his pupil, than to habituate him to strict obedience. Of course, this *will* must be an intelligent, or better, a rational one, to which the boy or girl, growing up *toward* maturity, shall submit. The commands must manifest themselves as the law of morality, not as the emanation of ill-humor and arbitrariness. The teacher must present in his own person the fulfillment of the precepts which he gives. Severity alone is not the means to preserve good order. A too frequent infliction of punishment is prejudicial to good order ; it must be inflicted at the right time, and in the right manner. Rudeness against a fellow-scholar, or even against a grown-up person, ought to be visited with due severity.

By such guidance the scholar will gain many a good quality in general moral firmness ; I will add another important point which the school ought to quicken in its pupils, **ACTIVITY**. Whence come the many excesses complained of in our times, whence the many follies, of a more or less serious nature, but from the dislike to work ? It is certainly one of the peculiar failings of our times, that to many men their vo-

cation is distressing, that they envy others because they *have it easier*, apparently at least, and that they make every effort to acquire in an easy way the means for the sustenance and enjoyment of life. To guard the growing-up generation against such an aversion to labor, to educate it to activity, ought to be one of the chief objects of the school. If the teacher has raised pupils to obedience, he can easily cause them to show the diligence in school and at home, which is requisite for the purposes of the school. But this is not enough—the children have not become *fond* of work. This is the failing of our times. I have repeatedly heard mechanics complain that workmen take less pleasure in their work than was the case formerly, that they are no more proud of their skill, but are always endeavoring to earn money with as little exertion as possible. The teacher should endeavor to make work a pleasure to the scholar. That the younger scholars should *feel* this, cannot be demanded of the school; but as the moral character grows with the increasing years of the scholar, obedience must and will become more self-determining. With proper guidance, the older scholars will take pleasure in useful activity; they must be *prepared* to find more work in civil life, and take pleasure in it—this is the art of education, *which, indeed, must likewise be acquired.*

HOME STUDIES.

The practice of remitting to the home fireside the tasks which properly belong to the school-room, is of doubtful propriety, even in its most modified form, but is absolutely pernicious in the degree to which it is often carried.

The time occupied in day schools is rarely less than five hours each day, and in some this period is exceeded. For girls under twelve years this application to study is longer than is necessary; but when the time is extended, the result is injurious to the nervous system and dangerous to health. For

girls in the prime of girlhood the time is sufficiently ample for all needed and practical purposes of education, without taxing them with heavy tasks to be accomplished at home. A correct habit of study is a necessary part of mental discipline. The formation and direction of this habit is a most important part of a teacher's duty. On her ability to discharge this duty in a proper manner will depend alike the fitness of the teacher for the position she occupies, and the future advancement of the pupil in the studies embraced in her educational course. This duty, then, belongs, not to the home circle, but to the school-room; not to the mother, as a part of her avocation, but to the teacher, as an indispensable portion of her high mission. The home circle, indeed, has its duties as well as its pleasures; both alike are incompatible with the mental toil of school-day tasks. From the centre of this home circle should radiate the sweet influences that gladden, chasten and adorn everything within its circumference. If the girls are not too old to romp and play with their dolls, let romping and dolls be the measure of their home tasks. Their young hearts are brimful of joyous and innocent sensations; let these be guided by propriety, but not repressed by undue or unnatural restraint. If the girls have passed this period, and are verging on that mystic confine which separates girlhood from womanhood, the home circle for them should be, not the task of cramming their brains with the *ologies* they will rarely master, and still more rarely make good use of, but of cultivating, under parental guidance and example, a taste for useful reading, for refined conversation, for elevating social intercourse, and for that practical knowledge of domestic economy upon which so much of the cheerfulness and true happiness of Home depends. These most needed lessons are to be acquired only in that charmed circle defined in the word "Home." They will rarely be imparted in the midst of the forced toil required for the tasks of the school-room.—*Catholic Mirror*.

INDOLENCE is the rust of the mind and the inlet of every vice.

LITERARY TREASURE TROVE.

To the merest accidents have we been indebted for the preservation of volumes which are justly considered to rank among the most precious relics of literature, and not less remarkable than the discoveries themselves is the fact that they have often been made at a time when further delay would have made them impossible. This has been particularly noticeable in regard to the remains of classical literature. In a dungeon at the monastery of St. Gall, Poggio found, corroded with damp and covered with filth, the great work of Quintilian. In Westphalia a monk stumbled accidentally on the only manuscript of Tacitus, and to that accident we owe the writings of an historian who has more influence, perhaps, on modern prose literature than any ancient writer, with the solitary exception of Cicero. The poems of Propertius, one of the most vigorous and original of the Roman poets, were found under the casks in a wine cellar. In a few months the manuscript would have crumbled to pieces and become completely illegible. Parts of Homer have come to light in the most extraordinary way; a considerable portion of the "Iliad," for instance, was found in the hand of a mummy. The best of the Greek romances, the "Ethiopics" of Heliodorus, which was such a favorite with Mr. Browning, was rescued by a common soldier, who found it kicking about the streets of a town in Hungary. To turn, however, to more modern times—everybody knows how Sir Robert Cotton rescued the original manuscripts of Magna Charta from the hands of a common tailor, who was cutting it up for measures. The valuable Thurlow State papers were brought to light by the tumbling in of the ceiling of some chambers in Lincoln's Inn. The charming letters of Lady Mary Montagu, which have long taken their place among English classics, were found in the false bottom of an old trunk; and in the secret drawer of a chest, the curious manuscripts of Dr. Dee, lurked unsuspected for years. One of the most singular discoveries of this kind was the recovery of that delightful volume, "Luther's Table

Talk ;” a gentleman in 1626 had occasion to build upon the old foundation of a house ; when the workmen were engaged in digging they found, “ lying in a deep, obscure hole, wrapped in a strong linen cloth, which was waxed all over with bees-wax within and without,” this interesting work, which had lain concealed ever since its suppression by Pope Gregory XIII. We are told that one of the cantos of Dante’s “ Paradiso,” which had long been mislaid, was drawn from its lurking place (it had slipped beneath a window sill), in consequence of an intimation received in a dream. One of the most interesting of Milton’s prose works, the essay on the “ Doctrines of Christianity,” was unearthed from the midst of a bundle of dispatches by a Mr. Lemon, deputy keeper of the State papers in 1823. How the manuscript could have found its way into such uncongenial company, remains a mystery to the present day. As years roll on, and curiosity is more and more awakened, such discoveries must become rare ; but probably many precious documents are still lurking in unsuspected corners, and not a few literary discoveries remain even now to be made, which will, when made, immortalize the discoverer.—*Fireside.*

READING ALOUD.

It is strange that, in a country whose language is stored full of the choicest works of the human mind, and whose population is, as a whole, so well educated, reading aloud as a source of amusement and means of enjoyment is so little resorted to. There are many families, we dare say, where a book, or a chapter of a book, is never read to the family circle from one end of the year to another. The individual members of the family read, but all reading done in the family is silent reading : Father has his paper ; mother, her tract ; Mary, her novel ; Johnny, his story of wild adventure. Reading, there is enough of it ; but each one reads for himself. There is no reading for the whole, and no grouping of the family into an

audience for an evening's enjoyment, such as comes to people who hear a good thing well read.

Only those who have visited in families where the gift of reading was cultivated as a source of family enjoyment, and the custom of reading aloud to the family practiced, can imagine what a help and blessing to the family life such a habit is. Music is well enough in its way, but its range of expression is far narrower than that of reading, and for that matter far less practical in its adaption to the family wants. Then, too, singing requires an instrumental accompaniment, and a piano costs money and requires too much practice on the part of the performer to be availed for the many. The art of reading well is easily acquired and cheaply taught, and the expressions of literature are abundant and varied. If sorrow has fallen on the family, the needed antidote can be found both in prose and in poetry. If fun is called for, then fun can be had at the asking; for the language is so full of humor, so quaint and subtle, that the bare recital of the author's words brings the point out and "sets the table in a roar." History, tragedy, comedy, wit, pathos, sublimity, every spring at which the human mind loves to drink can be opened and the sweet waters be freely given to everyone.

How cozy those home readings may be made! Warmth, light, companionship, culture, happiness, are all included in them. How much you are missing, if reading is not cultivated as one of the means of happiness and pleasure in your family circle! For, in such an exercise, there is quickening for the imagination, appeal to judgment, elevation of feeling, opportunity for criticism, which shall teach the children more of literature in three hours than they can learn at school in three weeks. Next to the impulse of love as a means of drawing families together, is the influence of intellectual companionship. Cultivate this, and see how satisfactory will be the result.—*Golden Rule.*

HE that hath love in his heart hath spurs in his sides.

DR. A. D. MAYO ON THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

After long observation, he could assert that no institution in America, not excepting the Christian Church itself, more thoroughly deserved the gratitude and support of the people for its services as teacher and trainer in good morals and manners, industry, order, respect for law, honesty, piety and the whole circle of virtues which fit the youth for honorable citizenship of the United States, than the typical Common School of the present American system. Here was an institution entirely unique in its aims and methods, and positively the only agency that could attempt to instruct the youth and children together in the sovereign art of self-governing citizenship. The family is the germ of the State, but the family is isolated. Moreover, in a city like New York, families were living in a state of prejudice against each other, separated by differences of nationality, class, culture, and a thousand disintegrating influences. It was only by bringing the children together, that they could be taught to comprehend their neighbors, and learn all those virtues of civic life without which government was only a chronic bar of classes and clans. In the Public School the children of the humbler classes learned to aspire "above their station in life." They learned that vulgarity, ignorance, intemperance, incompetency and servility were not good for any American citizen. The sort of honorable ambition and aspiration with which the youth become imbued in the Public Schools was the soul of American life. There ought to be schools for technical education in a great city like New York, but nobody would say that such an education ought to be begun before the age of twelve, or until the children had left the Public School. The general deportment of the pupils at the free high and normal schools was much better than that of the pupils of sectarian seminaries and colleges. The most respectable academies, like Easthampton, were exposed to disgraceful outbreaks, and even the young theologians of Princeton sported broken noses as the outcome of controversies with

the collegians. Such a thing as "hazing" in a free high school was unknown. Even the great female seminaries were renowned no less for the pranks of the lively boarding-school girl, than for the eminence of their instructors. The Free Schools were always open to inspection by, and responsible to, the public officials, while the private schools were isolated and responsible to no one but their own small clique. A good Public School was religious in the same sense as a good court, a good Legislature, a good postmaster, a good President. Its whole influence was on the side of Christian morality. The graduates of the Public Schools made the best church members, and everybody who believes in American institutions ought to uphold the Public Schools.—*New York World*.

LANGUAGE LESSONS.

1. *Talking*. The first lesson given to the little child in school should be one in talking, and all through its primary course the maxim "Talking before reading" should be carried out. It should be led to observe the qualities and uses of common objects, and then to express these observations in definite and complete sentences. The child has taken an important step when it can say "The paper is white;" "The coal is black;" "The fire burns;" "The bird sings," etc. Each reading lesson, howsoever simple, should be talked about before it is read, and the ideas of the pupil should be expressed in short and complete sentences. Events and things in which children are interested will furnish a great variety of conversational exercises. Attention should be given, even thus early, to the correction of common errors.

2. *Printing or writing words*. This is the first written step. Printing should begin as early as reading. The first word taught should not only be printed by the teacher on the black-board, but also by the pupil on his slate. In like manner each new word should be introduced by chalk and pencil. Print-

ing should be *taught*. Each letter should be printed on the blackboard, and the process of making it plainly described. Writing may be begun at the close of the primer, and even earlier. The copying of spelling lessons should be made an essential part of their preparation.

3. *Copying maxims, proverbs, stanzas of poetry, etc.* The object of this is to make the pupil familiar with the written form of a sentence. The maxims and proverbs should be printed or written on the blackboard, and then neatly copied by the pupil. The reading lesson, one or two paragraphs of which should be copied each day, will afford additional exercises. Stanzas and even short pieces of poetry may be selected for the purpose. A little encouragement from the teacher will cause children to take great pleasure in these copying exercises. Attention should be given to the proper use of capital letters and punctuation marks.

4. *Writing sentences dictated by the teacher.* In the preceding exercises the pupil has had the written or printed model before him. Now that which is addressed to the *ear* is to be placed in proper form before the eye. This is a step in advance, and it should be carefully taken. Each sentence must commence with a capital letter and end with the proper punctuation marks; the words must be correctly spelled; and the whole neatly arranged and written. The exercises, when written, should be corrected by the teacher, and neatly copied by the pupil. Not only original sentences, but instructive maxims, verses of Scripture, etc., may be dictated.

5. *Writing sentences expressing facts observed.* The pupil is now required to construct as well as copy sentences. The facts which he is led to observe are first expressed orally, as in the first step, and then written neatly and correctly on the slate. The starting point is an object lesson, that is, a lesson in observing; the end is sentence-making, and this is, as we believe, one of the highest uses of object lessons. They are the fountain out of which composition flows. The pupil may first express each fact observed in a separate sentence, as: "The chalk

is white;" "The chalk is round;" "The chalk is hard;" "The chalk is brittle." He may be taught to express these several facts in one sentence, as: "The chalk is white, round, hard, and brittle."

6. *Writing sentences containing one or more given words.* This step may embrace two classes of exercises. In the first the pupil is required to use, properly, in sentences words selected from his reading lesson. Suppose the words selected to be "fragrant," "fleece," and "tossed." The pupil writes: "New hay is very fragrant;" "My lamb has a snowy fleece;" "The boy tossed the fish into the water." This is an excellent method of teaching the meaning of words. In the second class of exercises the teacher gives two or more words, and the pupil constructs a sentence containing them. Suppose the words given to be "skate," "ice," and "smooth." The pupil writes: "It is fine sport to skate on the smooth ice." The sentences should be first given orally, and then in writing. We have seen a primary school wrought up to the highest pitch of enthusiasm by this simple exercise. The teacher scarcely completed the writing of the last word, before a forest of little hands indicated that the sentences were ready. In more advanced classes this exercise may be employed to familiarize pupils with the nature and use of prefixes and affixes. The following sentences selected from an actual exercise on the word "form" will illustrate: "I form a piece of clay into a tube;" "Vanity deforms the mind;" "I ought to reform myself every day;" "The caterpillar transforms itself into a chrysalis;" "I perform on the piano with my fingers;" "I conform to the wishes of my parents;" "I inform myself by observing nature."

7. *The description of pictures.* Pictures afford excellent materials for language lessons. Children like to see and talk about pictures. The simple question, "What do you see in that picture?" will call out several sentences. We recently heard a class of little children give a description of a camel. The teacher placed before the class a beautiful picture of this

animal, and by skillful questions elicited sentence after sentence. We have in mind a primary school in which "picture lessons" furnish the material for an extended series of written exercises.

8. *Writing the substance of reading lessons.* The preceding exercises have led the pupil to the grouping of a few sentences so as to form a paragraph. The pupil's reading lessons will afford excellent materials for additional practice. A few questions will elicit the important facts, which, when expressed in the pupil's own language and properly grouped, will form an excellent written exercise. The lesson should first be given orally. The pupil must talk before he writes. Only one or two paragraphs should be assigned for an exercise. This exercise is much used by the German teachers in the schools of Cincinnati, and with excellent results. The changing of stanzas of poetry into prose paragraphs is also a capital drill.

9. *Writing incidents and stories related by the teacher.* This exercise is similar to the preceding, but more difficult. The pupil depends on his memory for the ideas to be expressed, and these he is obliged to clothe mainly in his own words. At first the teacher may, by questions, break up the narrative into short sentences, simply requiring the pupil to reunite them. The narrative should be short.

10. *Writing descriptions by answering questions.* So far the pupil has been largely furnished with the materials with which to construct his sentences. He has simply had to fashion and arrange. Now, under the guidance of suggestive questions, he is to furnish his own materials. The plan is simple. The teacher selects a familiar topic, as "Rain" or "Snow," and asks questions, which the pupil answers in writing. These answers are read in the class, and freely discussed; then re-written by the pupil, and properly grouped. A single topic may last several days, a few questions being answered each day. See "Brookfield's Composition," published by Barnes & Burr, New York.

11. *Writing letters.* Pupils in our schools should have at least a year's instruction and practice in letter-writing. The

ability to write an intelligent, well expressed, neatly written letter at ten years of age is a possible and important acquisition. We once had a pupil who, when a small boy in an English school, wrote a letter daily for two years. He greatly excelled all his classmates in command of language, and in accuracy and readiness in composing. The dating, signing, folding, and addressing of letters should receive special attention.

12. *Writing business papers.* These may include promissory notes, due bills, receipts, checks, drafts, etc. Every boy and girl should be early taught to draw up such papers in proper form. They afford, in addition to their practical value, an excellent practice in writing abbreviated words, dates, etc.

13. *Writing essays.* The pupil now selects his subject, and expresses his ideas thereon in a connected manner; that is, he begins to *compose*. He may soon be thrown entirely on his own resources with the one essential injunction that he shall not attempt to write on themes of which he knows nothing. He is to express ideas, and to this end he must first possess them.

In the above outline we have but little more than indicated the successive steps of the course. Each step may be made to include a great variety of exercises. It will be noticed that the course is progressively graded, rising in difficulty until the pupil reaches the composing of essays—a task which usually confronts and often baffles him at the very outset of his efforts to “write the English language correctly.”

We call special attention to the fact that these exercises in language are to occur *daily*, the same as recitations in reading or arithmetic, and that the pupil's efforts are to be as faithfully examined by the teacher. The exercises are not only to be written, but to be read before the class and commented on, then examined and corrected by the teacher, and then neatly copied by the pupil. Every idea is to be correctly expressed, and every sentence correctly written. Spelling, punctuation, the use of capitals—in short, every requisite of a perfect manuscript is to receive attention.

Nor is this all. When the pupil is sufficiently advanced in age and mental discipline to undertake the study of grammar, he must approach the same by the natural road of language. The laws and generalization which constitute the science of language are to be discovered by the pupil, and made familiar by actual sentence-making. The relation of words and the nature and use of modifiers are to be learned by beginning with the sentence in its simplest form, as: "Grass grows," and then adding one modifying element after another, until it is built up in all its completeness. Synthesis should constitute the bulk of the first six months' instruction in grammar. "Synthesis before analysis" is the true maxim in teaching language.—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

SOME INTERESTING DATES.

Dates are generally dry reading; but there is sometimes a significance in the mere grouping of dates; and the reader will find such significance in an attentive consideration of the following events, all occurring, he will observe, within the limits of a little over a century: Postoffices were first established in 1464; printed musical notes were first used in 1473; watches were first constructed in 1476; America was discovered in 1492; the first printing press was set up at Copenhagen in 1493; Copernicus announced his discovery of the universe in 1517; Luther was summoned before the diet of Worms in 1521; Xavier, the first great missionary of modern Christianity, planted the cross in India in 1526; Albert Durer gave the world a prophecy of future wood engraving in 1527; Jergens set the spinning-wheel in motion in 1530, the germ of all the busy wheels and looms of ten thousand future factories. Henry VIII, of England, finally and forever broke with the Pope in 1532; modern needles first came into use in 1545; the first knives were used in England, and the first wheeled carriages in France in 1559; telescopes were invented in 1590—these are some of the more important headlands in European history within a single century.—*Rev. Lylam Abbott, in Sunday Afternoon.*

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

At a late meeting of the Board of School Commissioners of Baltimore city, General Phelps offered the following resolutions, which were adopted without a division:

"*Resolved*, That the Board of Public School Commissioners of Baltimore city will, to the full extent of the authority vested in them, coöperate with the City Council in the effort now making for retrenchment of expenditures.

"*Resolved*, That a special committee of five be appointed by the Chair to inquire and report what change, if any, has taken place in values since the present salaries were fixed; and if they find that the price of commodities has generally undergone a depreciation of value since that time, then to report what change in salaries would approximate the value thereof in relation to commodities to the value of said salaries when originally fixed."

We quote the resolutions as reported in *The Sun* of December 18, and while the wording is somewhat circumlocutionary, the meaning is pretty plain. It means that the present salaries were fixed when the cost of living was high; the cost of living has been reduced; therefore, salaries should be reduced in proportion. The business of the special committee is to ascertain what reduction of salaries will be equivalent to the general shrinkage of other values. If there is to be a general retrenchment in the city expenditures, teachers will be the last to complain. The good of the whole is the objective point of every honest citizen; and though reforms sometimes work unequally, and press hardly on individuals, yet no selfish motives will restrain teachers from joining heartily in any honest effort to diminish taxation by economical measures wisely planned and honestly carried out. But the retrenchment must be equal and impartial. Every public servant whose salary was raised since 1863 must submit to a reduction, and the proportion must be the same in every case. There is too much honor in this community to permit the school teacher to be made the scape-goat of the politicians. And there is too much sagacity to suffer the persistent enemy of our Free Schools—an enemy who does not "go about like a roaring lion," but lurks in silence and in secret like an assassin, watching his opportunity for a deadly blow—there is too much sagacity, we say, among the solid men of Baltimore to permit the enemy to stab the schools under the fifth rib, while hypocritically pretending to protect us from extravagant expenditures. "And Joab took Amasa by the beard to kiss him; but Amasa took no heed to the sword that was in Joab's hand: so he smote him therewith in the fifth rib."

"Salaries must come down because greenbacks have gone up." Granted: provided that salaries were raised in proportion to the depreciation of greenbacks. The salary of the Principal of a Grammar School was in 1860, \$900. It was the same in 1863 and 1864, although gold was selling at a premium varying from 101 to 285 per cent. In 1865, salaries of Grammar School Principals were raised from \$900 to \$1,300, equivalent to

50 per cent., and gold was quoted at 233 to 128. When gold was selling at 200, the corresponding salary should have been \$1,800; but it was never raised above \$1,500, and this only after two years' service.

The resolution tacitly assumes that the salaries were rightly adjusted in 1860; and that the equilibrium which was destroyed by the rise of gold was restored by the increase of salaries. If either of these assumptions is untrue, the conclusion, that therefore salaries must be reduced, falls to the ground. But the assumptions are both of them untrue. It is not true that the salaries paid in 1860 were the just equivalents of the services rendered. The teachers were notoriously underpaid in every grade, as may be proved by comparing the schedule of salaries paid in Baltimore with the schedule of any other city in the Union of similar rank. It is not true that (even assuming these salaries to be fair) they were readjusted in 1865 to correspond with the rise of gold or the general expense of living: for while some salaries were raised 50 per cent., others were raised 300 per cent. And the latent assumption on which the resolutions are based, that the average salaries are now too high, is equally unfounded. This will be evident from a comparison of our salaries with those paid in other cities.

BOSTON.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$3,780.....	Lowest, \$ 768
<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	2,880.....	Lowest, 504
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	744.....	Lowest, 504

NEW YORK.

<i>Male Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$3,000.....	Lowest, \$1500
<i>Female Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,700.....	Lowest, 725
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,500.....	Lowest, 600

Provided that Assistants of less than one year's experience shall be paid for the first year—Males, \$700; Females, \$400.

ST. LOUIS.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$3,000.....	Lowest, \$ 700
<i>Grammar Schools, Males</i> —Highest salary.....	2,200.....	Lowest, 2,000
<i>Grammar and Primary, Females</i> —Highest salary.....	1,200.....	Lowest, 400

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Total enrollment of Day Scholars.....	39,390
Average number of Teachers in Day Schools.....	668
Average number of Pupils belonging to each Teacher.....	47

CHICAGO.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,250.....	Lowest, \$ 750
<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,550.....	Lowest, 600
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	750.....	Lowest, 350

Range of salaries—\$2,250; \$1,875; \$1,550; \$1,500; \$1,350; \$1,000; \$900; \$750; \$600; \$500; \$400; \$350.

CINCINNATI.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,600.....	Lowest, \$ 500
<i>Primary and Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	2,100.....	Lowest, 400

PROVIDENCE.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,100.....	Lowest, \$ 600
<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,700.....	Lowest, 575
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	525.....	Lowest, 450

Provided that Assistants who have taught less than one year shall receive but \$350 for the first year.

NEWARK.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,150.....	Lowest, \$ 550
<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,800.....	Lowest, 425
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,100.....	Lowest, 300

PHILADELPHIA.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,586.....	Lowest, \$1520
<i>Grammar Schools, Boys</i> —Highest salary.....	1,724.....	Lowest, 458
<i>Grammar Schools, Girls</i> —Highest salary.....	862.....	Lowest, 458
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	527.....	Lowest, 413

DETROIT.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,000.....	Lowest, \$ 775
<i>Grammar and Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary..	1,500.....	Lowest, 300

Assistants receive \$300 the first year, and \$50 additional for every year of service up to \$700

BROOKLYN.

<i>Grammar and Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary..	\$2,700.....	Lowest, \$ 388
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Since January, 1868, Assistants received for the first year, \$300, and for the second, \$350; and the salary of Principals, appointed after that date, was fixed at \$2,000.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary, \$1,650; Lowest, (Assistant), \$400; Sub-Assistant, \$250.

PITTSBURG.

<i>High Schools</i> —Highest salary, \$2,700; Lowest, <i>Male</i> , \$1,200; <i>Female</i> , \$900.
<i>Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary, \$1,600; Lowest, \$500.
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Lowest salary, (Teachers having less than one year's experience), \$300; salary of Superintendent, \$3,000.

BALTIMORE.

<i>City College</i> —Highest salary.....	\$2,400.....	Lowest, \$1000
<i>High Schools</i> Highest salary.....	2,208.....	Lowest, 900
<i>Male Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	1,500.....	Lowest, 444
<i>Female Grammar Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	900.....	Lowest, 432
<i>Primary Schools</i> —Highest salary.....	696.....	Lowest, 408

Average salary, \$647.

It is not easy to make a definite comparison, because the names of schools and grades are not the same in other cities as with us. We have, therefore, thought it better to give the highest and the lowest salary in each department; arranging them as nearly as possible under the titles known to us—High, Grammar, and Primary Schools.

The force of the argument derived from the high salaries paid in New York and Boston, is often weakened by the allegation that it costs more to live in those cities than in Baltimore. With considerable practical knowledge of the cost of living in New York, we can say that there is only one item of expense that is necessarily higher than here, namely, house rent. It is also said that in other cities the schools are larger and the work necessarily heavier than with us; but in New York there are Grammar Schools of less than 150 pupils in which the Principal receives \$2,500 a year. But we have taken pains to ascertain the salaries paid in cities smaller than Baltimore, and where the cost of living may be presumed to be at least as low as it is with us. Providence, Newark, (N. J.) and Detroit have each less than 100,000 inhabitants, and there is no reason why salaries should be higher there than with us, except that the labors of the teacher are better appreciated. It should be noticed that where salaries in other cities fall below ours, it is in the case of beginners. It seems to be taken for granted that while an Assistant is learning her business, she is to be contented with a moderate salary. And this suggests the inquiry whether the present demand for retrenchment could not be met by lowering the salaries of second Assistants (and those of lower grades), appointed hereafter. By giving new appointees of the grade of second Assistants, \$300 a year, with an annual increase of \$50 for the first four years, a saving of \$10,000 a year would be effected, and nobody hurt.

THE Department of Superintendence of the National Teachers' Association will hold a special meeting in the city of Washington, D.C., during the first week in February. The meetings of this body in Washington during the sessions of Congress have always been productive of the very best results. The forthcoming meeting is expected to be larger and more influential than any of its predecessors. The leading educators of the country will attend it from the North, South, East and West. Papers are expected from Gen. Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education; Dr. Sears, of the Peabody Fund; Judge Strong, of the Supreme Court; Dr. Eliot, Superintendent of the Boston schools; Dr. Philbrick, United States Educational Commissioner at the Paris Exposition; Mr. Apgar, Superintendent of schools in New Jersey; Mr. Doty, Superintendent of schools in Chicago; Mr. Orr, Superintendent of schools in Georgia; Dr. Ruffner, Superintendent of schools in Virginia; Prof. Walter Smith, of Massachusetts, and others. The discussions will cover the live national educational issues now before the country. The proceedings will be so arranged as to bear directly upon the questions of strengthening the National Bureau of Education; the distribution of proceeds of the public lands for educational purposes, and others now pending in Congress. Programmes giving in detail the arrangements for the meeting, and stating specifically the order of the exercises, will be published in circular form at an early day.

PUBLIC SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.—The Association of Public School Commissioners of Maryland met in annual session at the State Normal School building in Baltimore, on Tuesday, December 16. Prof. M. A. Newell, Secretary of the State Board of Education, spoke on the condition of the schools in the several counties of the State. A larger number of pupils was on the rolls, and a larger average attendance than during the previous year. There were 1,920 schools. The increase of male teachers was sixty-four; female teachers, twenty-one. The total number of pupils was 109,998; average enrollment, 82,724; average attendance of pupils, 52,118; largest number enrolled any one time, 91,889; expenses for the year, \$1,011,690.90.

The Commissioners were again in session on the following day. A committee, appointed on the previous day to arrange the business of the session, brought in the following report:

1. That a committee of seven be appointed to consider what changes, if any, should be made in the school law of the State. This committee should represent every section of the State, and should be requested to consult with leading men in their respective localities for the purpose of ascertaining the drift of public opinion. The aid of the newspapers should be invoked for the purpose of crystallizing public sentiment. And the committee should report to the next meeting of this Association by a bill embodying the changes which their investigation may show to be necessary or proper.

2. The committee recommend the appointment of a committee of three to consider what steps can be taken to secure the payment of that portion of the Free School fund which was withheld in 1877, on account of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company failing to meet its engagements to the State.

3. Considering that much money is annually expended in the building of school-houses; that much of this is expended by men who have had but little practical knowledge of school architecture; and that the results are that mistakes are sometimes made which might easily be avoided, the committee recommend that a committee of five be appointed to report to the next meeting of the Association the best plans for building a one-room school-house, brick and frame; a two-room house, brick and frame; a three-room house, brick and frame; a four-room house, brick and frame. These plans, with specifications, being approved by the Association, to be published at joint expense for the use of the several school-house Boards of the State.

The first recommendation met with considerable opposition, and was amended by Rev. John Squier to read that, "A committee of seven be appointed to consider what changes, if any, should be made in the school law of the State, and that the committee report to the next meeting of this Association the result of their investigation." Adopted as amended.

After some discussion, the second and third recommendations were adopted.

The Treasurer's report was presented, and accepted, showing a balance in the treasury of \$22.80.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: James W. Pearre, of Frederick county, President; George M. Upshur, of Worcester county, First Vice-President; Dr. W. W. Duvall, of Prince George's county, Second Vice-President and Treasurer; T. C. Bruff, of Baltimore county, Secretary; and Prof. M. A. Newell, of Baltimore city, Dr. J. L. Bryan, of Dorchester county, and Rev. John Squier, of Cecil county, Business Committee. This closed the session.

The following counties were represented: Allegany, Anne Arundel, Calvert, Caroline, Carroll, Cecil, Charles, Dorchester, Frederick, Garrett, Harford, Kent, Montgomery, Prince George, Queen Anne, Washington, Wicomico and Worcester.

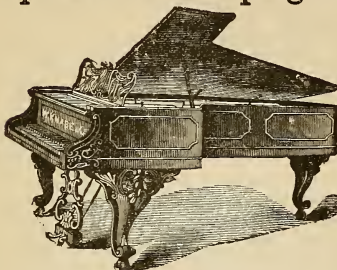
THE Teachers' Association of the 6th, 7th and 8th districts of Cecil county, met at Port Deposit, December 7th. Thirty-six members were present and four absent. Mr. H. R. Torbert, editor of the *Cecil Whig*, delivered a highly interesting and instructive address on Education, dwelling mainly on the History of Education, and the Personal Influence of the Teacher. His allusions to Pestalozzi showed a comprehension of the subject not often found in a *layman*. The next meeting will be on the 4th of January.

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THE MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

M. A. NEWELL,
Principal of the State Normal School,
CHAS. G. EDWARDS,
Pres't Teachers' Ass'n of Baltimore, } EDITORS.

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THE MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

DEVOTED TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION.

Vol. V. FEBRUARY, 1879. No. 5.

REPORT OF THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, 1878.

The following summary, in connection with the accompanying tables, exhibits, in a condensed form, the most important facts connected with the administration of the Public School System of the State, including the City of Baltimore, for the year ending September 30, 1878, so far as such facts can be presented in figures :

Number of schools in Baltimore City.....	127
“ “ the counties.....	1,862
Total.....	1,989
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	33
Number of different pupils—city.....	45,951
“ “ “ —counties.....	110,323
Total.....	156,274
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	5,998
Highest number enrolled in one term—city.....	35,288
“ “ “ “ —counties.....	92,167
Total.....	127,455
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	7,169
Average number in daily attendance—city.....	29,518
“ “ “ “ —counties.....	52,311
Total.....	81,829
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	6,103
Number of teachers—city.....	820
“ “ —counties.....	2,251
Total.....	3,071
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	175
Number of months schools were open—city.....	10
“ “ “ “ —counties.....	8 7-10
Average for the State.....	9 7-20

Amount paid for teachers' salaries—city.....	\$ 491,103 80
“ “ “ “ “ —counties.....	631,309 89
Total.....	1,122,413 69
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	37,350 44
Amount paid for building, repairing and furnish- ing school-houses—city.....	102,073 79
Amount paid for building, repairing and furnish- ing school-houses—counties.....	105,588 31
Total.....	207,662 10
Being a decrease in 1878 of.....	801 53
Amount paid for books and stationery—city.....	39,085 67
“ “ “ “ “ —counties..	55,867 34
Total.....	94,953 01
Being an increase in 1878 of.....	15,350 99
Am't paid for rent, fuel and incidentals—city.....	45,712 76
“ “ “ “ “ —counties..	42,990 13
Total.....	88,702 89
Being a decrease in 1878 of.....	4,529 41
Total expenditure for Public School purposes— city.....	677,976 02
Total expenditure for Public School purposes— counties.....	915,283 64
Total.....	1,593,259 66
Total expenditure for Public School purposes, 1877	1,544,515 54
Increase in 1878.....	48,744 12

Of the total expenditure by the city (\$677,976.02) :

The current expenses of White Schools amounted to	542,266 61
“ “ “ “ “ Colored “ “	57,715 11
The expenditure for building and repairs for White Schools.....	55,682 33
The expenditure for building and repairs for Col- ored Schools.....	22,311 97

Comparing the county schools of the present with those of the preceding year, we have :

Average number of schools reported in 1878.....	1,862
“ “ “ “ “ 1877.....	1,827
Increase in 1878.....	35
Total number scholars enrolled in 1878.....	110,323
“ “ “ “ “ 1877.....	104,462
Increase in 1878.....	5,861
Highest number enrolled in one term, 1878.....	92,167
“ “ “ “ “ 1877.....	86,340
Increase in 1878.....	5,827
Average number enrolled in 1878.....	82,260
“ “ “ “ “ 1877.....	76,692
Increase in 1878.....	5,568

Average number scholars in daily attendance— 1878.....	52,311
Average number scholars in daily attendance— 1877.....	47,804
Increase in 1878.....	<u>4,507</u>
Number of teachers (including assistants), men.....	1878. 1,207 1877. 1,130
" " " " women.....	1,044 1,012
Total.....	2,251 2,142
Increase in 1878.....	109
Average number of months schools were open 1878.....	8 mos., 14 days.
Average number of months schools were open 1877.....	8 mos., 18 days.
Decrease in 1878.....	4 days.
Amount received from State as School Tax, Free School Fund and Academic Fund—1878.....	\$361,738 56
Amount received from State as School Tax, Free School Fund and Academic Fund—1877.....	<u>327,636 97</u>
Increase in 1878.....	<u>\$ 34,101 59</u>
Amount received from appropriation to Colored Schools—1878.....	\$ 79,441 55
Amount received from appropriation to Colored Schools—1877.....	<u>79,488 37</u>
Decrease in 1878.....	<u>\$ 46 82</u>
Amount received from county taxation 1878.....	\$385,651 56
" " " " " 1877.....	<u>393,637 17</u>
Decrease in 1878.....	<u>\$ 7,985 61</u>
Amount paid for teachers' salaries in 1878.....	\$631,309 89
" " " " 1877.....	<u>609,734 15</u>
Increase in 1878.....	<u>\$ 21,575 74</u>
Amount paid for building, repairing and furnish- ing school-houses—1878.....	\$105,588 31
Amount paid for building, repairing and furnish- ing school-houses—1877.....	<u>106,451 64</u>
Decrease in 1878.....	<u>\$ 863 33</u>
Amount paid for books and stationery—1878.....	\$ 55,867 34
" " " " —1877.....	<u>49,307 63</u>
Increase in 1878.....	<u>\$ 6,559 71</u>

Amount paid for supervision and office expenses—1878.....	\$ 40,582 78
Amount paid for supervision and office expenses—1877.....	41,067 13
Decrease in 1878.....	\$ 484 35
Amount paid for incidental expenses—1878.....	\$ 42,990 18
“ “ “ “ —1877.....	47,231 11
Decrease in 1878.....	\$ 4,240 98
Amount paid for interest—1878.....	\$ 4,115 02
“ “ “ “ —1877.....	5,185 67
Decrease in 1878.....	\$ 1,070 65
Amount paid for miscellaneous expenses 1878....	\$ 6,404 40
“ “ “ “ —1877....	5,359 21
Increase in 1878.....	\$ 1,045 19
Amount paid for Colored Schools—1878.....	\$ 79,441 35
“ “ “ “ —1877.....	87,111 68
Decrease in 1878.....	\$ 7,670 13
Amount of indebtedness paid—1878.....	\$ 28,425 77
“ “ “ “ —1877.....	63,888 50
Decrease in 1878.....	\$ 35,462 73
Total expenditure for Pub. School purposes—1878	\$915,283 64
“ “ “ “ “ —1877	928,225 04
Decrease in 1878.....	\$ 12,941 40
The items of expenditure which show an increase are:	
Salaries.....	\$21,575 74
Books and stationery.....	6,559 71
Miscellaneous.....	1,049 19
Total increase.....	\$ 29,180 64
The items of expenditure which show a decrease are:	
Building, repairing and furnishing.....	\$ 863 33
Interest.....	1,070 65
Supervision and office expenses.....	484 35
Indebtedness paid.....	35,462 73
Incidental expenses.....	4,240 98
Total decrease.....	\$ 42,122 04
Showing a net decrease in 1878 of.....	\$ 12,941 40

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The Public Schools of Maryland have held their ground during the past year. They have done more. They have moved forward—not uniformly in one unbroken line, but with occasional breaks and curves, yet still obedient to the word of command, and in good order. The call for retreat (retrenchment) has been nowhere loudly heard, but it has had its effect nevertheless. The expenditures are slightly below those of last year. The call for new recruits was answered with alacrity, the school rolls showing 5,998 names more than in the year previous. The most encouraging symptom is the fact that the *average* attendance has increased in greater proportion than the enrollment. It is worthy of notice that the increase of average attendance is greatest where the teachers' salaries are, in part, contingent on the attendance of the pupils. It has been said that such an arrangement has a tendency to produce a show of attendance on the registers where there is no actual attendance at the desks. The *tendency* may be granted; but the vigilant supervision to which our schools may be, and ought to be, subjected will prevent this tendency from developing its bad effects. Whether we consider the waste of educational energy caused by unnecessary absence, or the moral effect produced by habitual irregularity, the enforcement of punctual and regular attendance is of vital importance to the community, and should be regarded by the teacher as one of his most important duties. It would be very unreasonable to hold a teacher morally responsible for irregular attendance, which may be, and often is, produced by "circumstances over which he has no control;" yet, when we see that the best schools have invariably the best attendance, there is some practical justice in the arrangement which gives the largest salary to the teacher of the largest school. Much benefit has been found in the use of postal cards with printed headings, sent weekly or semi-monthly by the teacher to the County

Examiner, giving a record of the attendance. The slight additional expense is more than repaid by the important information thus promptly given, which often shows the Examiner where a visit from him is most needed.

The subject of school attendance is one of the most important of the many important questions that come before the school authorities.

NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

A school census was taken by the police officers of Baltimore in the year 1876, with the following result: The whole number of children between six and eighteen years of age was 69,303. Of this number 44.5 per cent. were in Public Schools; 21 per cent. in private schools, and 34.5 per cent. not attending either;—23,736 children of average school age were thus not attending any school. This is an alarming state of society; and all the more alarming because, though the facts have been laid officially before the public by the Board of School Commissioners in two successive annual reports, the publication has given rise to no action, and has apparently attracted no attention.

That, in a city of 300,000 inhabitants, there should be a large number growing up in ignorance of the rudiments of school-learning, would not be of itself a dangerous symptom. It is when we consider what, at the present day, are the necessary accompaniments of such ignorance, that the full extent of the evil becomes manifest. We can readily enough admit that mere intellectual development does not ensure good morals; that one may spell rightly and act wrongly; that accuracy in the multiplication table will not make a man honest, and that the ability to write may be perverted to improper uses. There have been, and there may still be, times and places where dense intellectual ignorance is not incompatible with decency, morality and religion. But our lot has not fallen on these times, nor our lines in these "pleasant places." Whatever may be the case elsewhere, and whatever may be theoretically possible for us in the future, we know

that in the year of grace 1879, and in the city of Baltimore, to grow up without schooling is almost to grow up "without God and without hope in the world."

There are but three places of learning for city children—the family, the school, and the street. Leaving out of account the very small number whose education is well attended to within the limits of the family, every God-fearing parent, above the grade of pauperism, sends his children to school. Every parent, with the same exception, who wishes his children to "get on" in the world, sends them to school. When we know, then, that there are children in the city not attending any school, and when we reflect that, in all probability, the privation will be permanent with very many of them, we know that we are keeping up a nursery of the "dangerous classes" in the midst of us.

School-learning does not necessarily produce good moral habits; but when boys and girls grow into men and women without having learned habits of obedience, order, regularity and industry, either in the school or in the family (and we have seen that, where the parents neglect the lesser duty of sending children to school, they will not as a class perform the greater duty of bringing them up properly at home), they go into the world with every predisposition to evil, and they perpetuate their kind. Simple ignorance, if such a thing were possible, would not be very hard to contend against. But ignorance with its necessary accompaniments—necessary at least to us at the present day—lack of good family government, positive misgovernment, lack of good examples, positively bad examples, irreverence, lawlessness, idleness, spiritual and material wretchedness; ignorance such as this is the germ of a moral plague.

The given facts are simply these: A very large number of children are growing up without any good school or family-training; before they go into the world, some of them will be reclaimed by the social and religious influences around them; but many will go to swell the already large army of loafers, tramps, paupers and petty thieves.

The problem is, What can society do to lessen the number of irreclaimables ?

A "compulsory law" has been proposed ; it has been tried elsewhere ; it has signally failed ; it would fail if it were tried here as the only measure of reform, though it might be a useful auxiliary. Heroic treatment cannot cure a chronic disease.

I can only briefly indicate the general character of the remedy which I would propose for the existing evil ; details would be out of place.

Let it be remembered that the main object is not to teach children to read, write and cipher ; but to bring children who are neglected at home, either through the poverty, the carelessness, or the bad habits of their parents, under a system of training which shall, as far as possible, make up for the lack of good home-training.

Let it also be borne in mind that no reform is possible without spending money. If it is objected that our school system already costs too much, I would say, "Then let the additional expense be charged to the police and the almshouse ; these departments would save money by the reform."

Again, it must not be expected that any such sweeping reformation as is necessary can be carried out by the present school authorities. They are doing good work of another kind ; they are superintending the education of the children of the respectable classes ; their hands are full ; and their experience in one branch of the business will not assist in the new field, but would rather be a hindrance. New wine must not be put in old bottles.

The "neglected children" have no desire for education ; but they have a strong desire to make money. If they could see, or if their parents could see, that "there was money in it," there would be no trouble in getting them into school. A ragged newsboy will shiver in the cold and wet for three hours for the chances of making ten cents. Here is the magnet by which children may be drawn into school. Give them a

chance of making fifty cents a week each, and there will be five thousand children in school who were never there before, and who, but for some inducement of the kind, would never be in school.

The average annual cost *per capita* of the pupils now attending the public schools of Baltimore may be stated, in round numbers, as about fifteen dollars. It will be more if the average attendance, and less if the total number, of different pupils is taken as the divisor. I am firmly persuaded that the judicious expenditure of fifteen dollars a year *per capita* would bring under humanizing and civilizing influences a large majority of our neglected children. The first question is, Is it worth the money? The philanthropist answers, Yes; but the question is addressed not to our sentiments, but to our pockets. The detection and punishment of crime, and the support of pauperism, cost the city of Baltimore, directly, nearly a million of dollars a year, and, indirectly, several millions. The question is, Would the expenditure of a comparatively small sum, for the purpose of bringing up neglected children in good habits, be compensated by the saving of at least an equal amount in other directions? It is on this ground alone that, in these days of high taxation, I would plead for the experiment to be made.

The "experiment" may be described briefly as the establishment of a class of schools, as carefully adapted to the neglected classes as the existing schools are to the respectable classes of society. The success of the experiment, if it should be made, will depend upon the completeness of the adaptation of the schools to the habits, the wants, the desires, the feelings, and even the prejudices of those whom we are seeking to benefit. And just because these differ so widely in the two classes of the community, there must be a wide difference between the schools intended for each. The hours, the studies, the methods, the rewards and the punishments must be different.

When the conditions of the problem vary, there must be a corresponding variation in the solution. In our present schools

the problem is, Given the children of honest and industrious parents, some poor, and others comparatively wealthy, but all "respectable;" all endeavoring, some with more, and others with less success, to train their children in the fear of God and obedience to law: how shall we best assist these parents in bringing up their children so that they may become intelligent and virtuous members of society? The other problem is, Given the children of parents who are poor and shiftless, whom hard necessity compels to live from hand to mouth, who seldom enter a church-door, who are saved from the almshouse every winter by out-door relief, who eke out the family income at the best of times by the earnings of their children on the streets, carrying baskets, blacking boots and selling newspapers: how can these children be converted into useful, industrious and orderly members of society? How can they be prevented from adding to the burdens of an already overburdened community? In the one case the influence of the family is wholly on the side of the school, or, at the worst, is neutral. In the other case the influence of the family is wholly against the school of the orthodox pattern, or, at the best, is neutral. The conditions of the two problems being so widely different, we cannot expect that the method by which the one is solved will apply to the other. In fact, almost all we can positively know *a priori* is that the regulation-school must necessarily fail when applied to a class of pupils for whom it was not intended. Some of the principal features of the new school, as distinguished from the old, would be:

As to *hours*: Two hours a day instead of six, at first.

As to *attendance*: Irregularity no cause for loss of privileges, at first.

As to *dress*: Rags no objection—even dirt tolerated, at first.

As to *methods* of teaching: Oral and objective as far as possible.

As to *studies*: Hand work made prominent; memory work very little; music and drawing in large doses.

As to other occupations: Calisthenic exercises; gymnastics

and military drill ; also some form of industrial occupation leading finally to the acquisition of a trade.

As to *rewards* : A pair of shoes to the shoeless, when they are earned, and not sooner. No charity given ; but payment made on a given scale for work done.

As to *punishments* : Loss of privileges the highest punishment.

As to *teachers* : They must be missionaries, not day-laborers. They must seek out the pupils, not wait to be sought out by them. They must be thoroughly versed in the improved methods of elementary instruction. The salary must not be high enough to induce any person to accept the position merely for the sake of salary. The majority of teachers should be selected, if possible, from among those who can live without teaching, but are willing to make their lives useful to others. There are many noble women among us who will volunteer in such a service, if they can see clearly that their labors will not be in vain.

TEXT-BOOKS.

There are various methods adopted in different counties for furnishing books to the pupils. In some counties the School Board purchases books and stationery, and a quarterly fee (not exceeding one dollar) is collected from all pupils who are able to pay it. Indigent pupils obtain books without paying the fee, on the recommendation of the School Trustees. In other counties the Board purchases the text-books, and sells them to the pupils, either directly at the office of the School Board, or indirectly through the teachers, or through agents appointed for that purpose. In a few counties the Board merely announces the list of books authorized to be used, and leaves the parents to purchase them wherever they please. The objections to the renting of books are—first, the tendency to waste public property ; and secondly, the difficulty the teachers find in making collections. This last objection holds equally in the case of teachers who sell the books ; and there is the addi-

tional objection that, in many instances, pupils either will not or cannot procure books when they are needed, and thus the work of the school is greatly hindered.

It is difficult to secure a fair hearing for any suggestion that contradicts those traditional notions and practices which have been adopted without reflection, and continued without inquiry. There was a time when pupils carried with them not only their school-books, but pens, ink, paper, and their share of fuel. The writer distinctly remembers receiving a pupil into his private school who brought his desk with him, and was astonished to find it a superfluous piece of furniture, for which no standing-room could be found. Nowadays desks, wall-maps, blackboards, crayons, and generally pens and ink are furnished by the school authorities without charge. Why not school-books, also? The real reason is, that such has not been the custom. The ostensible reason is, that we cannot afford it. Yet it would seem plain enough that the name "Free Schools" is a misnomer, unless it includes a gratuitous supply of all that makes a school.

Every free public school should be furnished, at the public cost, with all the appliances that are necessary for the proper management and conduct of the school; desks, seats, slates, pencils, pens, ink, copybooks, blackboards, crayons, wall-maps and text-books; as well as fuel, brooms and water-buckets. For these accommodations children (who are able to pay it) may be charged one dollar, or less, a quarter, according to our present law; though it would be much better, if the finances would permit us, to make the schools absolutely free to all. The social distinction indicated by the terms "free pupils" and "pay pupils" ought not to be made prominent at so early an age.

The text-books, like every other part of the equipment of the school, should be kept always in the school-building, and in the immediate care of the teacher. This implies another, and a more serious, innovation on traditional observances. The schoolboy without his satchel! This strikes at the root

of a superstition which has done more to retard the progress of elementary education than any other of the many false notions which still hold possession of the minds of an unthinking public. I refer to the almost universally prevalent opinion, that the home and the school must divide the work of tuition between them; that children come home to "study" lessons, and go to school to "recite" them. The practical effect of this creed is, that in many hundreds of schools there is no teaching whatever; teachers are so busy hearing lessons that they have no time to teach. The logical inference from the creed would be, that schools are a useless appendage to the education of the family. For, if the child knows his lessons, there is no need to go to school to recite them; and if he does not know them, he cannot recite them if he goes to school, and his attendance is useless. Hence, the frequent application to parents to allow their children to stay at home because they do not know their lessons.

It is evident that, for the first two years, children cannot study at home; they have not information enough to make any study possible except, perhaps, the memorizing of the spelling of a few words, an exercise which at that age is not merely a waste of time, but a positive injury to mental growth. For the next three years children *ought* not to study at home. If their minds have been exercised vigorously for the six hours of the school-day, they have done all the mental work of which they are capable without injury. If they have not been thus exercised, the school should be reformed. Thus, between the ages of six and eleven, home-study is unprofitable, if not injurious.

But, granting that at the age of eleven and upwards children are capable of profitable home-study, it must be remembered that comparatively few of the pupils attending our Public Schools, especially in rural districts, have the leisure and the convenience which honest study demands. Many of them have domestic duties to perform, the girls inside the house, the boys outside. A still larger number have no place

for study in winter except the family sitting-room, where they are exposed to continual interruptions and distractions. Even though time and place were not wanting to those who are studiously inclined, should the programme of the school be arranged for the benefit of the few pupils of this class rather than for the many in the other class?

There is another most important consideration. If it were possible for the teacher to force children between six and twelve years of age to spend a certain length of time, every evening, at home in preparation of school lessons, he ought not to do it, because the time could be spent more profitably in other ways. The family has duties and pleasures as well as the school, and cannot be ignored with impunity. There are many things to be learned which the school does not, and cannot, teach. A child's time, after leaving school in the afternoon, should belong to himself and the family. The brain should be entirely relieved from compulsory work, and should have time to regain its elasticity before the next day's labors begin. The natural products of the unnatural requirements of the school-room are ignorance and stupidity on the part of the many, unhealthy precocity on the part of the few. To what else can we attribute the fact, that so many young people are utterly ignorant of everything outside of their text-books, but to the pre-occupation of their time with school-work, so that they have neither taste nor leisure for general reading? The school should prepare a pupil to study, should beget a taste for study, should direct him in the choice of studies; but should not absorb all the time that might profitably be given to intellectual exercise: still less should it interfere with his physical development. To prevent misunderstanding, let it be added that, as a pupil becomes older, his power of home-study increases, and may then be indulged to a limited extent without injury.

School-books, then, for elementary pupils, belong to the school-room; and should be furnished at the public expense, like other school requisites. They should never be carried home. When a pupil is old enough to study more than six

hours a day, his parents should provide him with the additional books needed for home-study. In this grade there will be very few indigent pupils, and they can be supplied as at present. The wear and tear of books is owing principally to their being carried to and from school. By making this carriage unnecessary, the cost of books may be reduced to less than half of the present figures; thus making a saving of at least \$30,000 a year in the counties, and probably \$15,000 in the city of Baltimore.

But the gain would be greater in an educational than in a financial point of view. The paralyzing routine of lesson-hearing would be broken into. School would become more of a workshop and less of a lounging-place. It would be recognized as the place where ignorance goes for instruction, not as a judgment-hall where sentence is pronounced and punishment inflicted. There would be no more pleading for leave to stay at home because of unprepared lessons. And the teachers of Sleepy Hollow would awake to the conviction, that the hearing of recitations, though an important part, is by no means the most important part of their duties.

All changes of text-books ought to be made in the summer vacation, and not more frequently than once in three years, unless on account of breach of contract. A clause to this effect would be a valuable addition to our school law. An open book-question is always annoying to a School Board, and sometimes mischievous. Close and continuous observation during a space of twelve years convinces me that more trouble in the school administration has been created by injudicious and reckless book agents than by all other causes combined. The keeping of an indifferent school-book in use for a year or two would be a cheap price to pay for protection against them.

SCHOOL-HOUSES.

We have been spending about \$100,000 a year in the building of new school-houses, and this expenditure will, in all probability, be continued for some years to come. There was

a provision in the law of 1865, that all school-houses should be built according to plans and specifications issued by the State Board of Education. The present law requires the plans to be approved by the Board of County School Commissioners. This Board is liable to change every two years, and few members remain in office long enough to obtain much practical knowledge of school architecture. Consequently, mistakes are sometimes made which an expert would have avoided. If it were practicable to submit all new plans to a competent authority, and to have the buildings supervised by an expert, money would be saved, and the health and comfort of pupils greatly increased. The question of school architecture was considered by the Association of Public School Commissioners at their last meeting (as will be seen in another place), and it is hoped that their action may result in a great improvement in the style of building.

The natural anxiety of parents to have the Public School sufficiently near their dwellings to enable their children to attend in all kinds of weather, has a tendency to lead to an undue multiplication of school-houses. In a few districts the evil is becoming apparent, and School Commissioners should be on their guard to prevent its increase. With the limited means at our disposal, quantity can be obtained only at the expense of quality. Where schools are open (as in the majority of the counties) for ten months in the year, it is better to have one good school than two indifferent ones. And even where the schools run but three terms (seven and a half months), the terms might be arranged so that the schools should be open to the younger pupils during a part of the pleasant weather. An increase of schools beyond the minimum number absolutely necessary means increased building expenses, increase of incidental expenses, low salaries, mediocre teachers and short terms.

These remarks will be confirmed by considering the case of Garrett county. Garrett county has an actual school population of about 2,500; Allegany county, about three times as many.

The number of schools is the same in both counties. Garrett keeps schools open for *one* term in the year; Allegany, for *three* terms. Garrett pays \$75 a term to the teachers for one term in the year; Allegany pays \$90 a term for three terms. It must be added, in partial explanation, that much of the population of Allegany is concentrated in towns and villages; while Garrett occupies a wide area sparsely populated, and that the entire income applicable to Public School purposes in Garrett county is not more than a fourth of what it is in Allegany. Still the question remains, Is it wise to try to keep seventy-five schools open on a net income of about \$11,000 a year?

HIGH SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES AND COLLEGES.

Since the date of my last report I have visited the High Schools at Towson town, Waverly, Woodberry and Reistertown in Baltimore county; the High School at Hagerstown; the Graded Schools at Westminster and Frederick city; the Graded School at Laurel; the County Normal School at Cumberland; the High Schools at Princess Anne, Salisbury, Snow-Hill, Berlin, Pocomoke City, Easton, St. Michael's and Trappe (Talbot county), the Western Maryland College, the Agricultural College, and a considerable number of District Schools in various parts of the State. I have thus been able, from personal observation, to form an opinion respecting our general educational work; and to verify the results afterwards obtained by the study of written reports. It is gratifying to be able to state that the latter is abundantly confirmed by the former. The larger enrollment and better attendance recorded in the tables are but the outward and visible signs of internal improvement. Teachers are doing better work, and their work is gradually becoming better appreciated. The links between the District School and the college are not yet complete; comparatively few of the counties on the Western Shore have county high schools (Allegany, Washington, Baltimore, Harford), and in some nominal high schools no Latin is

taught. It would be bad policy to push the high schools into sections where they are not wanted and would not be welcomed; for, at the best, a county high school exerts but a limited local influence. But a similar purpose is served by the infusion of a larger number of district school teachers who are qualified to teach the studies preparatory to college when called upon. It is from this source, rather than the organization of a large number of high schools, that we may look with confidence for a revival of learning. Enthusiastic teachers will always be able to find pupils willing to learn what *they* are able and willing to teach. This plan has the additional and important recommendation that it costs the public nothing beyond the maintenance of the ordinary district school.

The Agricultural College is in a prosperous condition, financially and educationally. The attendance is not so large as it has been, but the organization is complete, the discipline is good, the facilities for learning quite equal to the demand, and the domestic department well managed. Agriculture is gradually assuming the rank to which it is entitled in such an institution, and there is a prospect of establishing one or more workshops where the elements of mechanical industry may be learned in a practical way. The peculiar inducements to students preparing for admission to the Naval Academy have been withdrawn; and the military features are kept in strict subordination to the demands of physical exercise, the enforcement of proper discipline and the requirements of the Act of Congress establishing and endowing the College.

By an Act passed by the General Assembly of Maryland, the sum of \$10,000, which for the last four years has been paid to St. John's College for the free boarding of fifty young men who pledge themselves to teach within the State, has been divided between St. John's and the Western Maryland College, so that each will in future maintain twenty-six free scholarships under the conditions named. I have in a former report expressed my doubts of the propriety and th

economy of such expenditures. Without repeating my objections to the principles involved, I ask attention to some of the details.

1. While the students who hold these scholarships bind themselves to teach, the colleges do not promise to prepare them for the business of teaching. Such education as is common to all undergraduates, whether their destination be the farm, the bar, the ministry, medicine or merchandise, they get, and nothing more. The time has been when the knowledge of a subject was held to be equivalent to the ability to teach it. But that time has gone by—at least with thinking people. The ordinary instruction of a college no more fits a man to be a teacher than it fits him to be a lawyer or a physician. Collegiate education in all three cases is necessary, but it is only the foundation on which the special education is to be built. Every college or university that undertakes to fit young men for the profession of law or medicine, has a law school or medical school in addition to the ordinary literary and scientific schools. Does not the teacher need special preparation as well as the lawyer or the physician? And, considering that fifty young men bind themselves to become teachers in return for benefits received from the State, should not the colleges which accept these obligations and derive advantage from them, give these young men an opportunity of learning the principles and practice of their profession?

2. The law requires these beneficiaries to teach school for two years within the State. It does not require them (whatever may have been the intention) to teach in a *public* school. The legal obligation would be fulfilled by teaching a private school with half a dozen scholars. So far from this being an aid to public education, it might turn out to be a hindrance.

JOHNS HOPKINS' UNIVERSITY.

Although this University is not officially connected with the State system of Education, yet the educational history of the year would be incomplete without a brief statement of its

work. From the third annual report of the president we learn that the corps of teachers consists of six professors, fourteen associates, one resident lecturer, and fourteen non-resident lecturers. The students are classified as follows: sixteen fellows (who also act in part as instructors), thirty-five other graduates, twenty-five matriculates, and thirty-five special. Total 115.

The aims of the University are very frankly stated in the report, and the plans are developed as fully as the cautious and tentative policy of the trustees would permit. It is not their intention to add another "college" of the ordinary type to the hundreds already in existence. Even in Maryland there are already chartered colleges that give instruction in mathematical and classical studies, such as need not be duplicated in a University. But such colleges cannot deal effectively with those branches of science which require costly apparatus and large libraries. The trustees believe there was a strong demand "for opportunities to study beyond the ordinary courses of a college or scientific school." This demand they considered it their first duty to supply, and they think that the experience of the last two years confirms the wisdom of their decision, many graduates of other colleges having been attracted to the University by the eminence of the professors and the unequalled opportunities for advanced study.

As a second, but very important object the trustees recognized the obligation implied, if not expressed, in the deed of trust, to make the University available to the young men of Maryland for systematic instruction in the higher branches of learning, without any preparatory training, except such as could be obtained at home in institutions already established. Accordingly, "courses of study leading to the Baccalaureate degree were marked out for such students." Graduates of the City College were received, after due examination, as matriculate students; and arrangements were made for the reception of students from St. John's College at the close of their Sophomore

year. The public will watch with great interest and some anxiety the development of this part of the University programme, not merely because they believe it will in time become the central dome of the great temple, but because as it advances towards completion it will mark a sympathetic advance of the whole public school system.

A third object has been to awaken and encourage a general interest in literary and scientific subjects by means of afternoon lectures, open to the educated citizens of Baltimore, under simple regulations. No part of the University work has been more highly appreciated than this. During last year nearly two hundred lectures of this series were delivered before audiences varying from forty-five to one hundred and ninety-five persons. I should make special acknowledgment of the benefits which the teachers and some of the more advanced students of the State Normal School have derived from attending these lectures. I am particularly grateful for the help given to those teachers who attended Professor Martin's Course of Lectures on Physiology with laboratory practice.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The thirteenth annual session of the State Normal School closed on the 30th of May, 1878, with 217 students on the roll—199 ladies, and eighteen gentlemen. Of these 166 were present at the final examination at the close of the School; thirty-three were graduated, almost all of whom are now teaching; sixteen undergraduates obtained employment as teachers; and ninety-five returned to School in September. The average number of new students being about 100, and the average number of graduates being about thirty, it is worth inquiring what becomes of the remainder? The facts may be stated approximately thus: Thirty per cent. graduate; fifteen per cent. obtain certificates, and teach without graduating; twenty per cent. are unable to pay their expenses longer than for a year; and thirty-five per cent. are unable to maintain their scholastic standing by reason of inadequate preparation

or defective capacity. This last class is merely a drag upon the wheels. School Commissioners, who have the appointing power, should see to it that no students are sent to the Normal School to be educated as teachers at the expense of the State except such as they know to be in good health, and to be possessed of the requisite preparation and at least average intellectual abilities. The curriculum of the School is neither tedious nor difficult, but it is sufficient to sift the wheat from the chaff. While some graduates show more skill and acquire a higher reputation as teachers than others, it is a matter of common notoriety that no person holding the diploma of the School has yet failed either in instruction or discipline. The School does not claim to be able to make good teachers of all students who are offered; but merely that its course of study and method of discipline are effective in selecting those who are most likely to succeed, and also in enabling them to acquire that skill which comes only from practice, with a much smaller expenditure of time and labor than would otherwise be necessary.

It is to be regretted that so few young men avail themselves of the opportunity of attending the State Normal School. The explanation of the fact is not difficult. Country schools pay too little to stimulate the ambition of a young man. City schools may be regarded as prizes; but the prizes are few in number, ninety per cent. of the public school teachers being ladies. Besides, while the Normal School was in contracted quarters, there was no proper accommodation for any large number of young men. And now that there is ample room for them, the Legislature offers a prize of \$800 each, in addition to free tuition, as an inducement to fifty-two young men, candidates for the profession of teaching, to go to *college* for their preparatory studies. The wonder is not that so few men enter the Normal School, but that any at all are found there. Nevertheless, it is claimed that during the six years that these inducements have been offered (ending June, 1878), the Normal graduates have furnished more male teachers to the Public Schools than the college graduates. It would require more complete statistics than I possess to verify the calculation.

INSTITUTES AND ASSOCIATIONS.

Fewer Institutes than usual have been held during the year. The loss has to some extent been made up by a revival of County and District Teachers' Associations, Baltimore, Howard and Cecil counties leading the way in this direction ; but it is hoped that next year will witness a revival of the Institute. Our system has not yet risen to such a point that we can afford to ignore this, the most useful and the most available of all the temporary expedients that have been employed for the instruction and encouragement of young teachers.

The State Teachers' Association met in Baltimore ; the attendance was good, and the work was interesting and profitable. Some of the papers read deserve a permanent place in our educational literature.

The Association of Public School Commissioners held their annual meeting in the State Normal School on the 26th and 27th of November. The following resolutions were adopted :

1. That a committee of seven be appointed to consider what changes, if any, should be made in the school law of the State, and to report the result of their investigation at the next meeting of the Association.
2. That a committee of three be appointed to consider what steps can be taken to secure the payment of that portion of the Free School Fund which was withheld in 1877, on account of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company failing to meet its engagements to the State.
3. Considering that much money is annually expended in the building of school houses ; that much of this is expended by men who have had but little practical knowledge of school architecture ; and that the results are that mistakes are sometimes made which might easily be avoided, that a committee of five be appointed to report to the next meeting of the Association the best plans for building a one-room school house, brick and frame ; a two-room house, brick and frame ; a three-room house, brick and frame ; a four-room house, brick and frame. These plans, with specifications, being approved by the Association, to be published at joint expense for the use of the several school house Boards of the State.

LEGISLATION.

The late General Assembly had, as usual, a new school law under consideration, but failed to pass it. The principal feature was the abolition of the present method of appointing

School Commissioners, namely, by the Judges of the Circuit Courts, and the substitution of the State Board of Education as the appointing power. This compelled the framers of the bill to devise another plan for constituting the State Board of Education. With these two prominent exceptions, and one or two unimportant additions and alterations, the bill was, word for word, a repetition of the present law—a high compliment, indeed, to the existing system.

The most important enactment of the session, so far as education is concerned, was the “Act to prescribe and define the duties of the Comptroller of the Treasury relative to the apportionment and distribution of the” Public School tax, and “to confirm the apportionments and distributions thereof heretofore made by that officer.” This law settles the dispute between the Boards of School Commissioners and the Comptroller, by legalizing the acts of that officer and making, what he states to have been, his practice the precedent for the future. Some weeks before the law was passed, the case had been decided in favor of the School Commissioners by the Circuit Court of Anne Arundel county; but the action of the Legislature rendered the decision fruitless. By this step, the white schools lose about one-fifth of their annual revenue from the State; but the loss will not be severely felt for a year to come.

An “Act for the better protection of insectivorous birds in Somerset county” (Chap. 44) gives one-half of the fines collected under it to the public schools of the county.

An Act (Chap. 64), relating to the catching of oysters and fish in the Synepuxent Bay, gives half the fines collected under it to the public schools of Worcester county.

The 8th Section of Chapter 70, an Act to define and preserve the Inner Harbor of Cambridge and Cambridge Creek in Dorchester county, provides that “one-half of all the fines imposed and collected under the provisions of this Act for the violation of the second offence specified in the 6th Section of this Act shall be paid into the public school fund

of said county." The 9th Section of the same Act specifies another offence, and assigns the whole of the fine to the Public School fund.

Section 7 of Chapter 108, for the protection of game in Garrett county, and other purposes, assigns half the fines accruing under it to the County school fund.

Chapter 150, an Act to prevent swine and geese from running at large in Creagerstown, Frederick county, gives "all emoluments arising from fines to the Trustees of the public schools."

Chapter 138 authorizes the regents of the University of Maryland to sell the buildings on Mulberry street, Baltimore, and to expend the proceeds "for any of the purposes of the University."

An Act (Chap. 368) was passed requiring the School Commissioners of Anne Arundel county to expend \$350 in building a school-house for colored children in the Fourth District of that county, and a similar sum for a school-house in the First District: provided, that certain parties named will donate an acre of ground to each as a building site.

An Act (Chap. 269) was passed appropriating \$5,000 to the Charlotte Hall School in St. Mary's county, to be paid in five equal installments.

An Act (Chap. 339) was passed to revive the corporation of the Vienna Academy in Dorchester county (which had expired), and appropriating \$300 a year to the support of the same.

The ninth section of a local law for Dorchester county (Chap. 160) provides that "all moneys levied by the County Commissioners for educational purposes shall be levied separately and distinctly from the other items of taxation, and shall in no year be less than \$10,000."

An Act (Chap. 174) was passed "to consolidate and unite into one corporation the 'Washington University of Baltimore' and the 'College of Physicians and Surgeons of Baltimore city.'"

An Act (Chap. 184) for the protection of terrapin in Anne Arundel county imposes a penalty for the violation of the law, and assigns one-half of it to the school fund of Anne Arundel county.

A similar Act (Chap. 210), for the protection of partridges, etc., in Cecil and Harford counties, gives all the fines collected under it to the school fund of said counties.

An Act (Chap. 242), for the protection of fish in Gunpowder, Middle and Back rivers, gives half the penalties for violation of the same to the public schools of the county where the offence was committed.

A similar Act (Chap. 276), for the protection of fish in the waters of the Chesapeake Bay adjoining Cecil and Harford counties, gives the fines and forfeitures accruing under it "to the County Commissioners for the use of the school fund" of the county in which the offence was committed.

A similar Act (Chap. 280), to protect fish in the waters of Somerset county, gives one-half of the fines and forfeitures under it "to the School Board for the use of the public schools of said county."

An "Act for the benefit of St. John's College" (Chap. 315) provides for the gradual reduction of the number of free boarding-students from fifty to twenty-six (one for each Senatorial district in the State), and for the payment of \$200 a year to the college for each of said students: provided, he "shall pledge himself upon entering college that he will continue a student thereof for the full term of four years, unless prevented by unavoidable necessity, and that he will teach school within the State for not less than two years immediately after leaving college or as soon thereafter as may be practicable."

A similar Act (Chap. 239) was passed "for the relief of Western Maryland College." This Act gives the College \$2,600 annually; and \$5,200 a year additional "to be applied by them in furnishing board, fuel, lights and washing to one student to be educated free of charge for tuition from each Senatorial district in this State, and appointed by the School

Commissioners in said Senatorial district by and with the advice and consent of the Senator in their respective Senatorial districts after a competitive examination: provided, etc.”

The property of persons dying intestate and without a legal representative is by law paid over to the School Commissioners. Chapter 316 enacts, that “if any legal representative shall appear after payment has been made under the preceding Section, the Board of County School Commissioners receiving such payment shall pay the same to such representative; but no collateral more remote than brothers’ or sisters’ children shall claim under this Section.”

An Act (Chap. 325), “relating to the catching of oysters with scoops in Dorchester county,” gives “all moneys arising from fines and forfeitures under this Act, after the deduction of costs, to the Public School fund of the county;” “and all Justices of the Peace before whom fines are imposed under this Act, shall report the amount of the same to the Treasurer of the School Commissioners within thirty days thereafter, under penalty of fine of double the amount thereof.”

The next Chapter, “An Act to protect the oysters in the waters of the Great and Little Choptank rivers,” gives half the fines and forfeitures arising under it “into the Free Schools’ Treasury of Dorchester county for the use of said schools.”

Chapter 345 enacts, that the \$1,200 of academic donation now paid to Garrett county (as to all the counties in the State) “shall be applied to the support of the Grantsville and Oakland schools in equal amounts,” until a County High School shall be established.

Chapter 359 relates to the catching of oysters in Talbot and Dorchester Counties, and Section 6 provides that the fines and forfeitures under it shall be used to provide police officers for the enforcement of the Act; “and in case of a surplus” (a very unlikely case) “remaining over at the end of each fiscal year of the county, it shall be placed to the credit of the school fund of said county.”

An Act for the protection of wild fowl near Hooper’s Island

(Chap. 366) provides that "the money arising from said sales and fines, after deducting the legal costs, shall be paid into the Free School Treasury of Dorchester county."

Chapter 367 revives the "Act to incorporate the Trustees of Buckingham Academy and Female Seminary of Berlin."

Chapter 373, "to prohibit the catching of oysters with scoops, drags or dredges, in certain waters of Somerset county," gives half the fines to the use of the public schools of the county.

Chapter 376 provides, that oystermen in Somerset county shall pay \$10 a year each for a license, and that "all moneys received under this Act shall be paid over to, and for the use of, the public schools of the county."

Chapter 447 authorizes the Trustees of Cavetown Union school-house to sell it.

Chapter 462 provides for a vote for or against liquor licenses in certain election districts of Dorchester county, and enacts (among other things) that the money received for licenses (if they are granted) shall be paid into the public school fund of the county. One-half of the fines, also, for the violation of this Act goes to the public schools.

M. A. NEWELL.

PROSPERITY AND ADVERSITY.—The virtue of prosperity is temperance; the virtue of adversity is fortitude. Prosperity is the blessing of the Old Testament; adversity is the blessing of the New, which carrieth the greater benediction and clearer revelations of God's favor. Yet, even in the Old Testament, if you listen to David's harp you shall hear as many hearse-like airs as carols; and the pencil of the Holy Ghost hath labored more in discribing the afflictions of Job than the felicities of Solomon. Prosperity is not without many fears and distastes; and adversity is not without comforts and hopes. Certainly, virtue is like precious odors, most fragrant where they are incensed or crushed; for prosperity doth best discover vice, but adversity doth best discover virtue.—*Lord Bacon.*

A DAY'S VISIT IN A KINDERGARTEN.

We were there when the children came ; here and there a single one, but more generally in groups ; some with nurses, some with older sisters, some with their mammas, who also attend the Kindergarten (being members of the training class), and one little tot, three years old, was rolled to the Kindergarten in a baby carriage.

How bright and happy they all looked, and how beautifully they sang, "Praise the Lord! Happy children now in the temple sing: Hosanna to the 'Lord our King,'" and how earnestly the little voices joined in the "Our Father"!

Then came an exercise in Calisthenics, and how the little arms moved, in time with the music, *forward, upward, downward, or horizontally*, as their little leader gave the direction! Then the little ones left the assembly room for their gifts and occupations. Soon, at one table, several of the very youngest (three and four years old) were engaged in a merry game with the balls of the first gift. The black-eyed baby, who rode to school in such state, was one of the merriest and most eager of the class. At another table, a group of children a little older were engaged in building with the cubes of the third gift, making changes in the "forms of beauty," and singing with low voices, "See the windmill how it goes, while the wind so briskly blows." One little fellow of five years exclaimed, "I know what that means; it means the wind is blowing hard and turns it around." At a third table, other children were building with the sixth gift, and they made truly wonderful "forms of life," in the wells, fountains, monuments, park-gates, Academy of Music, and Masonic Temple of Baltimore, and the street cars, steam cars and vessels of different kinds, with which they were familiar.

A signal was given, and in a few minutes the blocks were all put away in a most orderly manner, and the neatest brown-

paper portfolios were laid before the children. A blue-eyed three-year-old anticipated the Kindergartner, by saying, in the sweetest lisp, "*Open your weaving mats,*" when, as if by magic, in the shortest time imaginable, all the children were weaving bright colored strips of paper into other strips prepared for them, being cut to within an inch of each edge, and called by the children "*weaving mats.*"

A short conversational lesson in German, so well pronounced that one could imagine one had been set down in the "*Vaterland,*" proved that very little children could learn to speak two languages, and yet pronounce each clearly and distinctly.

Then came the delightful "*lunch-time.*" The long tables were covered with table-cloths, and the children came in from the halls (where they were allowed to play while the tables were prepared) and, being seated, the lunch-baskets were distributed and tiny tumblers were placed, one at each child's place, and a napkin was spread before each, and the lunch was removed from the dainty marvels of baskets, which, I am sure, were pretty enough to make the plainest lunch delicious. Most of the lunch *was* plain. Here and there a child had rather substantial sandwiches of bread, or rolls, and meat, and one or two had slices of cake, but crackers, or small pieces of bread, and fruit formed the staple. A young lady member of the Training Class sat at the head of each table and pared the fruit, answered questions and, finally, replied to the "*Please excuse me*" with which each one, who finished lunch, left the table. Another member of the Training Class attended, at this point, to see that every child left the room for the next play with clean face and hands.

The children next met in the room where they first assembled in the morning, and had a short object-exercise on naming the parts of the human body. After this the slates were distributed, and such perfect delight I never saw before in anything like a school. Each was anxious to show what he or she could make and very desirous to do something new.

Before the children were tired the slates were collected, and one of the ladies gave a little time to explaining and having the children repeat the words of a new song, after which came some of the lovely movement songs, wherein lies so much of the power of the Kindergarten upon the hearts and lives of the children committed to that system of instruction. Not a rude act nor motion did I see; not a rude nor unkind word did I hear in this large number of children under eight years of age. Some of the games were quite dramatic, "The Farmer" being specially so.

All seemed to love them, and were a most happy and charming little company. We left, wishing with all our hearts that every little one in the land could spend the time from three to seven years of age in the Kindergarten, and wishing, more earnestly than ever before, that the time might not be long before it formed a part of the Public School system; and, were this the case, the future of the United States would be far greater than even its glorious past, for the good results on the people would be beyond all computation.

Baltimore, Md.

K. S. FRENCH.

SUPERINTENDENTS.

The necessity of an educated superintendence of all our public schools will appear from the nature of the duties of the office. Let it be understood that the superintendent is to be the agent of the school committees, who are to sanction or revoke all he may do. As an agent, he will be directed to determine the number of schools the town will require for the highest good of the children; to select and examine the teachers to be employed; to make out courses of study for all grades of instruction; to aid the teachers in mastering and applying the best methods of teaching; to do what is possible toward procuring the necessary means of teaching, such as natural objects and apparatus; to give advice concerning the text-books

to be used ; to hold meetings of the teachers to promote their improvement and efficiency by all proper and suitable methods ; to call meetings of the school committees, and suggest to them what changes are necessary to be made to render the school work more productive of good results ; to make a personal examination of the schools as often as possible ; to aid in settling all differences that may arise between teachers and parents ; to inquire into all matters pertaining to the condition of school houses, that the health and comfort of pupils may be cared for and promoted ; and to make a detailed report of the schools in his district. The importance of the duties of the superintendent may be at once known from their nature.

The duty of selecting and examining teachers cannot be properly performed except by one who has had an actual experience in just that kind of work the teacher is expected to perform. He must be able to determine by examination what are the natural gifts the candidate for teaching possesses ; whether his mind is richly stored with knowledge, and is thoroughly trained by an experience in doing what he should have the power to do.

No teacher should be admitted to the schools until there has been found *in him* the power to control his pupils and to mould aright their characters. To do all this, he must be able to discern the peculiar characteristics of the individual members of his classes, and be able to minister to individual wants.

It requires a trained educator to examine for these things, and to know when they are found. The mode of examining teachers by a few questions pertaining to the facts he is to teach, leaving out of account all reference to the principles of teaching, or to the personal qualities of the teacher, is a farce, and it has filled our schools with a class of persons who are subjecting the schools to a waste they cannot afford to endure. The first step toward a true progress in our school-work is to substitute good teachers for poor ones. This step will never

be taken until those to whom the power to choose is committed, are impressed with the importance of employing none but good teachers, and who know the marks by which they may be discovered. However well educated he may be, no one but a teacher is prepared to conduct the examination of teachers, or to tell what he sees when he visits a school.

The internal life of a school is concealed from all inexperienced eyes. Recitations having the external appearance of perfection may be prepared without method or proper objects of study; and they may be given without knowledge or a right exertion of mental power.

The children, to the inexperienced eye, may appear in proper order, and yet the stillness and sobriety be due to stupidity, or to a system of government that is crushing out the best life of their young natures. The skillful superintendent will be able to see what is invisible to the inexperienced, and will know how to apply a remedy, by guiding the teacher to better methods of teaching and of school government. He is to be to the teachers of his district what a principal of a school is to those who labor with him. From want of proper external help, good teachers are often compelled to abandon or to modify into insignificance their good plans of teaching and school management.

Parents sometimes complain; the school is too large or too small; it is improperly graded; the means of teaching are wanting; text-books are not uniform; the course of study has no philosophy in it; the school house is without comfort or convenience; but into it the teacher is put with conditions such as render it impossible for him to produce any good results. It is the duty and privilege of the superintendent to discover such conditions, and to relieve the teacher from their disastrous effects. He can do what no other agent can do toward removing difficulties and creating a right public sentiment toward the schools, by making them worthy of support.

As a fact, the schools of the country are everywhere better for being subjected to a proper supervision. Educators are

not divided in their sentiments concerning the utility of special and intelligent supervision of all the schools. Wherever such supervision exists the schools take on a new form; a new interest is awakened in them; the per cent. of attendance is increased; the teachers feel that they are supported by an influence such as they themselves are unable to exert, and the people become willing supporters of institutions that make such good returns for what is expended upon them. Objections to superintendents are made, some of which are well founded. A poor superintendent may be worse than none. He may neglect his duty, or he may superintend the life of a good teacher and of his school all out of them, and leave nothing but discouragement and irritation and ill-will in their places. He may be wanting in good sense, and become obnoxious to the people.

But these objections arise from the fallibility of a weak human nature, that renders the success of all human enterprises conditional. A good superintendent is the life of our common-school system. This experience has proved. A poor one must be exchanged, as soon as possible, for a better. If the fault is in the man, a change may be made, and leave the good system unchanged. Whatever may be said of the expense of supporting the system, it may be shown that we cannot afford to do without it.

The waste we are now making is not only of money improperly and uselessly expended, but it is also of the precious time of our children, who have but a brief period of their youth-time allotted to them for a preparation for life. If this time is lost, a waste has been made of that which alone has value, and which no after-effort can repair.—*New England Journal of Education.*

WHEN the world has once got hold of a lie, it is astonishing how hard it is to get it out of the world.

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The reign of cram in primary schooling is seriously threatened, and Boston leads the revolt. Henceforth, if success attends the effort, the Boston Public School teacher will teach, not simply hear recitations as heretofore ; and the pupils will acquire knowledge after the normal method of childhood, by being taught, by seeing and thinking, instead of by the memorizing of words from books. Language will be taught by talking lessons with and about pictures, plants, animals, everyday life and experience. Oral instruction will also be given upon form, color, measures, animals grouped by habits, vegetables, minerals, hygiene and the human body. The metric system will be taught from the metric apparatus. No spelling books will be used, the reading books taking their place. In the grammar grade, grammar, as generally studied, has been abolished with the spelling book. In the stead of parsing and other technical work, lessons will be given in composition, in the use of capitals, in letter-writing, and in the arrangement of sentences. Much of the time formerly devoted to geography will be given to natural philosophy and physiology. Oral instruction will be an important feature of all the classes, and in the lowest two it will predominate. In the lower classes the subject for oral instruction will be natural history, plants from May to November, animals from November to May, trades, occupations, common phenomena, stories, anecdotes, mythology, metals and minerals. In the upper classes, physiology, life in the middle ages, biographical and historical sketches, and experiments in physics.

This method labors under one serious, we fear, fatal difficulty—the teachers will have to know something. Their knowledge will have to be real “live” knowledge, not dead verbiage ; and they will need to know a good deal about the natural, social and industrial life that the children come in contact with, out of doors and at home. Such knowledge is not to be gained from books ; and it is hard to turn a book

student into a practical observer. We sincerely hope, however, that the teachers of Boston will succeed in their difficult task, and demonstrate to the rest of the world the feasibility of this promising and long needed reform.

STRONG CHARACTER.—Strength of character consists of two things—power of will and power of self-restraint. It requires two things, therefore to its existence—strong feelings and strong command over them. Did we never see a man receive a flagrant insult and only grow a little pale and quietly reply? That is a man spiritually strong. Or did we never see a man in anguish stand as if carved out of solid rock mastering himself? Or one bearing a hopeless daily trial remain silent, and never tell the world what cankered his home peace? That is strength. He who, with strong passions, remains chaste; he who, keenly sensitive, with many powers of indignation in him, can be provoked and yet restrain himself, and forgive—these are strong men, the spiritual heroes.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

COMMITTEES.—At the Fall meeting of the Association of Public School Commissioners Association, the following committees were appointed:

On the School Law—(to report what changes, if any, are needed)—P. A. Witmer, Hagerstown; R. B. B. Chew, Upper Marlboro'; Wm. M. Isaac, Towsontown; Col. John T. Dent, Mileston, St. Mary's County; Rev. John Squier, Port Deposit; James W. Thompson, Centreville; Geo. W. M. Cooper, Salisbury.

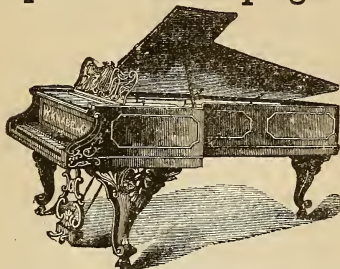
On the Free School Fund—(to report what steps are necessary to secure payment of that portion of the free school fund which was withheld in 1877)—Daniel T. Lakin, Frederick; Dr. James L. Bryan, Cambridge; Joseph M. Newson, Westminster.

On School Houses—(to report on the best plans of school houses, brick and frame, with one, two, three and four rooms)—Alex. Chaplain, Easton; Thos. C. Bruff, Towsontown; Rev. Wm. Dale, Pocomoke City; James B. Duke, Port Republic.

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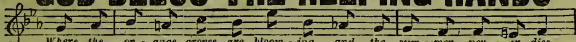
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THE MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

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THE
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DEVOTED TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION.

Vol. V.

MARCH, 1879.

No. 6.

TEXT-BOOKS AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION
IN ENGLISH,

Especially as Studied in Colleges and Universities:

BY JAMES M. GARNETT, LL.D.

Principal of St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.

[Read before the Virginia Educational Association at Hampton, Virginia, July 11th, 1878.—Continued from the January number.]

The course in English so far outlined is, in my opinion, as much as can be done in the high schools and academies which are not prepared to lay the further foundation of a thorough study of *Anglo-Saxon*. I have not insisted upon the study of Anglo-Saxon in these schools because I have tried to limit my remarks to what may be universally practicable; but for colleges, all colleges, and universities, I must insist upon this study, as absolutely essential to any true philological knowledge of English. It is simply indispensable; and whether the course mentioned above shall be first pursued in the lower classes, and the study of Anglo-Saxon, with Semi-Saxon and Early English down to Chaucer, limited to the higher classes, or whether the foundation shall be laid with Anglo-Saxon and the chronological order be subsequently observed, must be determined by circumstances, and must be left to each indi-

vidual instructor. I have pursued the former course, and chiefly because students enter college with such deficient preparation in English, and therefore I feel compelled to do what ought to be done by the schools. If, however, the schools will take the matter in hand, and do this work, there will be no question as to what course the colleges should pursue, for any well-trained Freshman ought to be prepared to begin Anglo-Saxon.

As to the necessity of the study,—there is not a remnant of inflection, not a so-called irregular plural, the comparison of an adjective, a pronominal form, a single *strong* (so-called irregular) verb, or auxiliary verb, not many adverbs, prepositions, or conjunctions, and scarcely an idiomatic expression, which can be explained without a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. Illustrations of each of these points might be given by the dozen,—and to one unacquainted with the subject, it can only be appreciated by illustration,—but the limits of this paper will not permit so much detail, and I must refer to the works of Dr. Morris, already mentioned, or to any Anglo Saxon grammar.*

Here we shall find the ancestors of our common possessive, plural, and personal endings, of such forms as *men, feet, geese, teeth, mice, kine, oxen, children, brethren*,—and *sistren* too, with *calvren, eyren, lambren*, which are also lost,—*elder, nearer, later, rather, better, worse, more and less*; we shall see how *his* can be neuter and *him* an original dative, how *she* has come in and *heo* gone out, how *that*, originally neuter, can be used for any gender, and “Our Father *which* art in heaven,” was perfectly good English,—in fact, the whole development of the relative, a most interesting study,—how *went* has replaced *yode*, and *die* driven out *starve*, why we say *tell, told* and *seek, sought, ride, rode*, but *bite, bit*, how *must* and *ought* have

* I should add Mr. Kington-Oliphant's “Standard English,” just republished, in a much enlarged and improved form, under the title “Old and Middle English,” by Maemillan & Co. Though lacking system somewhat, this work is indispensable to the student of English.

renounced their tense restriction,—but it will not do to enumerate further inflectional forms, which must appear as very elementary illustrations to all who know Anglo-Saxon. Still, it may not be amiss to inquire what right I have to say "it will not *do*," in that particular sense, why Milton said "if thou *beest* he," and Chaucer very seldom used *are*, why "*wo* *worth* the day" is good English still, and how I should explain *the* if I said, "*the more* Anglo-Saxon, *the better* English." Here we may see the origin of our continuous past in "they were *fighting*," the inflection of the participle in "they had *slain* him," the original use of *to* with the dative infinitive as in "good *to eat*" and its confusion with the verbal noun as in "good *for eating*," the similar confusion of the present participial, verbal noun, and simple infinitive terminations, the correctness of Milton's "*yclept*," but the incorrectness of his "*ypointing*," and the origin of that peculiar phrase, "*for the nonce*," which might be applicable to the sufficiency of these illustrations. It is useless to multiply them, and my object is accomplished if I have awakened in any mind a doubt of the possibility of understanding the grammatical structure of English without knowing Anglo-Saxon. If that is the case, our colleges are derelict if they do not provide an opportunity for the study of Anglo-Saxon, for it is a reproach that our college graduates should complete their collegiate course knowing more of Latin and Greek, French and German, than of their mother-tongue. The deficiency will not be repaired, and we shall be doomed to go on in the same old way. If the colleges appreciate the importance of the subject, they will in time react upon the schools, and we shall have a new order of things.

The study of Anglo-Saxon grammar reveals to us a new world, if our grammatical ideas have been heretofore bounded by the classical horizon. Here we may learn the normal form, the whole scheme, of Teutonic grammar, and much more fully than in modern German, though not so fully as in Gothic. It differs in several respects from Latin and Greek,

although a knowledge of Latin or Greek grammar will help in the study of Anglo-Saxon, as of any other Indo-European language. Even an elementary training in classical philology furnishes an excellent basis for a training in Teutonic philology; I had almost said an indispensable basis, but that I would not exclude those who are so unfortunate as to lack a knowledge of the classical languages, though I consider that one who is without any previous linguistic training would be at a great disadvantage. Our *universities* should furnish an opportunity for the study of the Gothic language, and of comparative Teutonic grammar, along with the study of Anglo-Saxon, and this should be the cap-stone of the course in the universities founded on the basis of the Anglo-Saxon language. We should imitate the German universities in this respect, and I look for the time when in the American universities Anglo-Saxon shall be illustrated by its affiliation with the Gothic, Old Norse, Old High German, Old Saxon and Old Frisian, and when comparative Teutonic grammar shall be no longer excluded from university studies in this country, even though we may not be able to provide courses of lectures in each of these separate languages. Let us first, however, secure a thorough study of Anglo-Saxon alone, not only in our universities, but in our colleges, and let us complete our collegiate course on this basis. Now really begins the tug of war. We cannot skip from King Alfred to Chaucer, but must bridge over the intervening period. The Anglo-Saxon inflections commence to weaken and break up about the middle of the *twelfth* century, say with the conclusion of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (A. D. 1154). For a hundred years the disintegrating process goes on, doubtless affected considerably by, though not due solely to, the contact of Normans and Anglo-Saxons, and seen chiefly in this inflectional weakening, for the few Norman French words introduced may almost be counted on the fingers. Our chief works for this period are *Layamon's Brut*, the *Ormulum*, and the *Ancren Riwele*, in the unique editions of Sir Frederic Madden, Dr. White, and Dr.

Morton respectively, and until a few years ago they were our only works; but the labors of the Early English Text Society—which should be patronized by every lover of English—have added to the list *Genesis and Exodus*, *Old English Homilies*, and others, so that we can now get a tolerably good idea of English of the *thirteenth* century in its various dialects, for we have not to deal with *one* language, but with several dialects of one language, and we must be careful to distinguish between them.

The period extending from 1200 to 1400 A. D. is the most difficult period of English. The old language was breaking up, or had broken up, the Norman-French was affecting it, and no standard language had come in to take the place of the classical West-Saxon. The Southern dialect was the direct descendant of the West-Saxon, but we had the Northern dialect as the descendant of the Northumbrian, the language of the north of England, and the East and West Midland dialects, covering the central portion of the country. For the *fourteenth* century the works are more numerous, but I would only name for the first half of the century, *Robert of Brunne's Chronicle* and *Hampole's Pricke of Conscience* in the Northern dialect; *Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle* and *Dan Michel's Ayenbite of Inwyt*, or *Remorse of Conscience*, in the Southern dialect, while for the second half we come upon *Langland's Piers Plowman*, *Wycliffe*, *Gower* and *Chaucer*, representing the cultivated East Midland dialect, the parent of our own modern English. In this century, too, the Norman-French influence is much more decided, and here a knowledge of Old French is important, for which our study of Latin will have been a valuable help. The extent of the influence of Old French upon English of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries has not, to my knowledge, been fully investigated, and we still need thorough researches on this point, and their incorporation in a form suitable for instruction. The publications of the Old French Text Society, recently established in imitation of the Early English Text Society, will doubtless furnish

material that will be useful for this purpose, and it is to be hoped that some scholar of both languages will not leave this deficiency much longer unsupplied. After we get back to Chaucer, in the descending series, it is all plain sailing grammatically, though we shall still need a glossary for a word here and there. It is wonderful how a course of study of this kind enlarges our knowledge of Chaucer's language. We can refer every form and change of form back to its predecessor, we have a much clearer notion of that vexed question of the final *e*, and much that was dark before seems plain and easy now. The literature that we shall study in such a course, though chiefly valuable from a philological point of view, is not without its value from a literary point of view. It gives us an insight into the culture of our ancestors; and while it shows literature in the English tongue repressed and almost stifled after the Norman conquest, the few works that are left preserve the literary continuity, and teach us that at no period has the English nation been without literature of some sort in its own sturdy English tongue.

For the purpose of such a study of the historical development of the language as is here outlined, we shall need text books to put into the hands of our students. For the Anglo-Saxon period there is no lack, as our Anglo-Saxon scholars in this country have, with commendable zeal, provided useful and convenient manuals, as for example, Shute's "Manual," Carpenter's "Introduction to the Study of Anglo-Saxon," Corson's "Handbook of Anglo-Saxon and Early English," and March's "Anglo-Saxon Reader." All of these works have grammatical introductions, but for the student who wishes to go more deeply into the study of the language, Prof. March's excellent "Comparative Grammar of the Anglo-Saxon Language," in which its forms are illustrated by comparison with Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and the cognate Teutonic languages, is to be highly recommended. These books have replaced Klipstein's Grammar and his "Analecta Anglo-Saxonica," formerly the only works available in this country

for the study of Anglo-Saxon. In England also the study has progressed, as is shown by the publication of Vernon's "Anglo-Saxon Guide" and the revised edition of Thorpe's "Analecta" a few years ago, and the very recent "Anglo-Saxon Reader," in the Clarendon Press Series, edited by Mr. H. Sweet, author of a "History of English Sounds," and a "Handbook of Phonetics" just published, and editor for the E. E. T. Society of King Alfred's "West Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care." Mr. Sweet is a most thorough Anglo-Saxon scholar, and has brought out prominently the distinctive features of the West Saxon dialect.

The Rev. John Earle, who has succeeded the late Dr. Bosworth as Professor of Anglo-Saxon in Oxford University, has recently published "A Book for the Beginner in Anglo-Saxon," also in the Clarendon Press Series, but I cannot say much for its value, as any one who studies Anglo-Saxon at all should be prepared to take up a fuller and more thorough work. In Germany, too, the study of English philology, based of course on the study of Anglo-Saxon, is progressing rapidly. Heyne's "Comparative Grammar of the Old Germanic Dialects," which includes Anglo-Saxon, has been well-known for some years, and a few years since (1870) Loth's "Etymological Anglo-Saxon and English Grammar" appeared. More recently, manuals entitled "Old English Practice-Book, (*Alt-Englisches Uebungs-Buch*)" (1874), by Prof. Zupitza of the University of Berlin, and "Old English Reading Book, (*Alt-Englisches Lesebuch*)," (1874), by Prof. Wülker, of the University of Leipzig, have been published for use in their University lectures, the former beginning with Anglo-Saxon extracts and extending to *Lydgate*, and the latter beginning with 1250 and extending to 1500, the second part being still in press.

It is not necessary to mention other works for the Anglo-Saxon period, but for the periods immediately succeeding, known heretofore as the Semi-Saxon and Early English periods, our text-books are not so abundant. In fact I know of no

book published in this country which contains such extracts, except Prof. Corson's "Handbook of Anglo-Saxon and Early English," in which selections from *Layamon*, the *Ormulum*, the *Anceren Riule*, and other early English works, to Chaucer and Gower inclusive, follow the Anglo-Saxon selections. The glossary, with its appendix in the later editions, is a serviceable one, but the grammatical outlines are brief, too brief for the Anglo-Saxon, in which also Loth's empirical classification of the verbs is followed, which is not so good as March's or Heyne's, for in studying Anglo-Saxon we should lay the foundation for studying other Teutonic dialects, if the occasion presents itself, and we get a clearer idea of the structure of the language if we view it in its relations to its cognate dialects. Prof. Corson's work is also without explanatory or philological notes, which are needed for these periods of English; but he deserves credit for having first presented a series of connected extracts from King Alfred to Chaucer and Gower, thus furnishing a handbook for the historical study of the language. In the Clarendon Press Series, Dr. Morris and Prof. Skeat have published a volume of "Specimens of Early English," Part II, embracing the *fourteenth* century, from *Robert of Gloucester* to *Gower*, but Part I, which is to embrace the *thirteenth* century chiefly, and serve to bridge over from Sweet's "Anglo-Saxon Reader" to this volume, is still unpublished. With a class that knows German, the manuals of Professors Zupitza and Wüleker, above-mentioned, might be used, and for the teacher who reads German the two volumes of prose and poetry, published by Dr. Maetzner, under the title "Old English Extracts" (*Alt-Englische Sprachproben*) (1867-'69), will prove an unfailing storehouse of information. The dictionary to these volumes is now in course of publication, and has only reached the letter "D" in the five parts so far published, but until it is completed, Stratmann's "Dictionary of the Old English Language of the XII, XIII, XIV and XV Centuries" (1873) will answer all purposes.* For the grammar, I should mention, too, in high terms, the late Prof.

* This work has just appeared in a new edition.

Hadley's "Brief History of the English Language," which is a part of the introduction to Webster's "Unabridged Dictionary," but can be obtained separately, and which contains, besides a very clear though brief history of the language, an outline of Anglo-Saxon grammar, after Heyne, of the grammar of Layamon and Orm, and of Chaucer. It is the best compendium accessible for instruction, but should be published in a different form and in larger type. For teachers, it is unnecessary to do more than refer to the great grammar of Maetzner, now translated, but not well, the historical grammar of Koch, to be translated by Dr. Morris, and that of Fielder and Sachs, the first volume of which has been issued in a new edition (1877) by Dr. Koelbing, who is the editor of Koelbing's "*Englische Studien*," a Journal of English philology, established last year.

But enough has been said about text-books, and this report, already too lengthy, must close. I have endeavored to do nothing more than present an outline for a course, or courses, in the study of English, especially the *historical* study of the language and literature which might be pursued in our high schools and academies, and in our colleges and universities.

We see the activity with which the study of English philology is carried on in Germany, which might be illustrated by the mention of other facts and works than those briefly alluded to above, if time permitted—but I cannot proceed without expressing the debt of gratitude which all Anglo-Saxon students owe to the late Professor Grein for his exhaustive collection of Anglo-Saxon poetry, his projected collection of Anglo-Saxon prose, of which the first volume only was published, his edition of "*Beowulf*," and other works. We are glad to know that these works will be soon republished and continued by Prof. Wülcker, who, in the establishment of the "*Anglia*," a Journal of English philology, has shown a zeal worthy of his distinguished friend.*

* For a good view of the contents of Volume I of the "*Anglia*," and of Koelbing's "*Englische Studien*," see an article in the *Saturday Review*, for June 1, 1878.

This activity has also spread to England, as is shown by the recent establishment of the chair of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge University, and the publication of the works above mentioned, and numerous others, by the Early English Text Society, which, in the fourteen years of its existence, has done, and is still doing, a great work.

Our own country has not been behindhand in taking up this study, for twenty-five or thirty colleges and universities now afford opportunities for the study of Anglo-Saxon and Early English, and Anglo-Saxon text-books are abundant, but the study has not yet assumed the proportions that it should, and that it will assume. Considering, however, that it is a new study comparatively, it has made prodigious strides, for twenty years ago the institutions in which it was taught might be counted on the fingers of one hand. It is to the credit of our Virginia University and of its illustrious founder that provision was made for instruction in Anglo-Saxon at the inception of the University, more than half a century ago, and this provision has always been fulfilled, but it should occupy a more prominent place in the University curriculum.

A "Proficiency in Anglo-Saxon" should mean more than it now does, and the claims of English philology will not be satisfied until it is put on a par with the other studies required for the Master's degree, and a "Diploma in English" shall mean as much, and shall weigh as much in the estimation of the public, as does now one in Latin, Greek, or Mathematics.

There is a wide field for a *University* course in Anglo-Saxon alone, and when we include the later Semi-Saxon and Early English periods, we might well despair of covering the whole ground efficiently. The Anglo-Saxon poem, "*Beowulf*," called the oldest epic in any Germanic tongue, would of itself furnish material for a complete course of lectures. The Germans understand this, and hence the excellent editions of both Grein and Heyne, with critical and explanatory notes and glossaries, but without translation, that the university student may exercise his ingenuity upon the text. The English edi-

tions of Kemble, Thorpe, and the more recent one of Arnold, are all provided with translations, and are without complete glossaries. Their cost also renders them less available for use as text-books. The latest editor, Arnold, while furnishing a useful introduction, has not taken advantage of the latest German critical scholarship, and has failed to produce a satisfactory edition. We are glad to know that Prof. Skeat has undertaken to edit for the Early English Text Society a complete photographic *fac simile*, with transcription, of the unique manuscript. This is all that he intends to do at present; what he wants is "to procure for all *the text*," and he will not furnish translation, glossary or notes. It were to be hoped that he would give us the edition we need, but when we get the genuine text, doubtless some one else will supply the deficiency, and we shall then have an *English* edition of this old English poem to put in the hands of students. Besides its linguistic value, it is one of the best representations that exists of old Northern manners and customs, and may be regarded as a portrayal of the Homeric age of our ancestors.

But there is much other Anglo-Saxon literature to furnish material for university lectures, and time will not permit further discussion of the works belonging to the later periods. Suffice it to repeat that a thorough study of these periods is necessary to understand the language of Chaucer and his contemporaries, and hence the development of modern English. This is a worthy object of collegiate and university study, and this historical study will tend to elevate English to that place in higher education which it should occupy. We have long enough rested content with teaching Latin, Greek and Mathematics, and letting English—which one would naturally think ought to occupy the *first* place—scuffle for itself. It is a subject of gratification that some of our institutions have begun to make room for the new study, and that the impulse in this State was given by your former president, but much yet remains to be done not only in this State but elsewhere.

Until our colleges and universities show that they think the study of English means something, we cannot expect the schools to give more time and attention to it. Their chief force will naturally be expended in preparing their pupils in the subjects required for entrance to the colleges and universities, and the subjects to which most attention is paid after entrance. As in all other subjects connected with higher education, the impulse must come from above, and it must work from above downwards. As soon as the schools find that their pupils fail on the entrance-examination in English (not the so-called "English" examination of *our* day), they will set to work to remedy the deficiency, and will send up boys prepared to enter upon a higher course in English, and when that course is required for the Bachelor's and Master's degrees in the colleges and universities, it will be pursued with the same zeal and earnestness as now characterize the study of the classical, mathematical, and scientific courses. Time and place must be found for this course, if necessary, to the extent of curtailing the time now given to other studies, and in some cases it might well replace other studies. If our colleges once realize the importance of the study, they will not rest satisfied until they have found time and place for it in their curricula.

Let us, then, not be left behind in this race which is being run in Germany, England and America, but let us establish the mother-tongue in the high place which it deserves in all of our educational institutions; and let us not, too, leave the work of illustrating the early literature, of tracing the early language, and of spreading a knowledge of it, to German and English scholars, but let our own scholars apply themselves to the task, and give us the results of patient and laborious investigations. Let us study and teach the English language of all periods in a scientific spirit, assured that the result will repay the labor, that we possess a heritage of speech not inferior to that of any other nation on the globe, and that a thorough knowledge of it in its origin, its growth, its external

relations, its internal changes, its whole historical development—even as a branch of scientific philology, apart from all practical use—is an object well worth striving for and teaching to our children, so that the next generation will start at an advantage, will possess a better knowledge of the mother-tongue than we could lay claim to, and will be better prepared to further the progress of English philology.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

Teaching is the *worst* paid occupation in which one can engage. It is the highest paid and the lowest paid. A higher price is paid for unskilled labor than it can command in any other field; while skilled labor receives less than the same amount of special training will command in other pursuits. It is not only because a sufficient amount is not expended in paying teachers that so little progress is made toward making teaching a profession, but because what is expended is not judiciously expended. Ask the carpenter what effect it would have upon the trade if there were a Board to examine those who wished to become carpenters as to the size of their muscle, give them a certificate showing how much muscle they possessed, and then send them out to work, apprentice, journeyman and master alike being paid according to size of muscle. The effect would be, in a majority of cases, to cause carpenters and those intending to become carpenters to give more attention to developing their muscles up to the maximum size, and keeping it there, than to acquiring skill in the handling of tools peculiar to their trade, and judgment in planning the best manner of accomplishing the results required of the architect. Suppose also that those who had developed their muscles up to the proper size for first-class carpenters were liable, whether skilled or unskilled, upon a periodic re-examination to be put back into the second class if their muscles were found to have become

smaller, temporarily or permanently, either from overwork, sickness or want of nourishment; while those who could by any trick or dishonesty make their muscle appear larger on the day of the examination, would be advanced. The youth who had no experience in any skilled labor, but had the required amount of muscle, would become a carpenter; while the man who had acquired skill and found himself the possessor of manual dexterity and inventive mind, would seek some other trade where those faculties would form factors in determining his wages.

That the trade of the carpenter would decline under such treatment can scarcely be doubted; and if some one should propose as a remedy that a larger sized muscle, or development of more different muscles, be required of applicants for first-class, and that they be paid somewhat higher wages, it would not help the quality of work much. Absurd as such a plan of dealing with a *trade* would appear, precisely so are *teachers* graded and paid. Applicants for positions as teachers are examined in certain branches of learning, *some* of which they will be expected to teach, and according to the per cent. of questions they are able to answer and the branches in which they are examined, are given certificates as first grade or second grade teachers. They then find schools which pay so much for second grade and so much more for first grade. What is the inevitable result of this? Those in second grade devote their energies to studying up to get into first grade; those in first grade have nothing to do but keep there. No incentive is given to teachers in either grade to acquire professional knowledge or skill, nor is such knowledge or skill demanded of applicants to put them in a position to get the best salaries.

Hence, young men who have enough scholarship to study law, medicine, divinity, etc., find they have also sufficient to become first grade teachers, and can get better pay than in any other business of which they are totally ignorant. Their minds are generally on their future profession, and not on the

profession of teaching. As soon as they have learned the routine of the school room they leave for a more promising field of labor. Those teachers who are successful as such, soon reach the point beyond which they cannot go—the learning which is the sole requirement for first grade is about what would be expected of a bright boy of fourteen—and the pay being small compared with what the same abilities would command elsewhere, all in excess of the number needed in the higher and more lucrative positions drift out of the profession. This should not be allowed. As able teachers are necessary for country and primary schools as for high schools and colleges. But, say the authorities, we know our examinations are not perfect tests of teaching abilities; persons holding second grade certificates may be better teachers in some cases than those holding first; but we must have some means of grading, and what other practical means is there? The remedy is simple. Cease to value teachers exclusively by the quantity of spelling, geography, grammar, geometry, physiology, etc. they have memorized, and take into account their knowledge of the principles of education, and the skill with which they can put the details into practice. Make out the scale of salaries accordingly. But how determine their professional skill? The following plan is suggested: In the first place, let the examiner or superintendent be a man of eminent abilities, not as a lawyer or doctor, but as a teacher. Examine applicants as to scholarship and grade them as at present, first grade, second grade, etc. Fix minimum salaries for the first year, discriminating in favor of the first grade, in order that there may be inducements for preparation as regards education, but remembering you are paying for unskilled labor. Let the minimum salaries be, for example, four hundred dollars for first grade, and two hundred for second grade. Let these first year teachers be carefully observed by the competent examiner; let them come to him with their difficulties, and let him assist them; let them keep a careful record in the form of a diary of their schools, and send it in with an essay on some subject

connected with teaching at the close of the year. If they have made suitable progress according to the judgment of competent persons, advance them to the second year's trial, making salaries five hundred and three hundred dollars respectively. If they have not made the necessary progress, keep them on the first year salaries until they do, and thus weed the profession of much useless material. Keep them on this trial for five years, demanding a certain progress in the art and science of teaching, and advancing the salaries one hundred dollars each year, provided the required progress were made. Those who could not make such improvement in the regular time could be advanced as soon as they did. The salaries for the fifth year would be first grade eight hundred, and second grade six hundred dollars. Now give them rank as professional teachers with a guaranteed salary of first grade ten hundred, and second grade eight hundred dollars when in active service, and half pay when sick. Let them hold position during good behavior, subject to dismissal only after trial and conviction, and subject to being put back into the trial ranks should they become careless in regard to professional duties. Give the professional teachers as a body advisory authority with the school commissioners in all matters relating to text-books, government, etc. They might also assist the examiner in observing the progress of those on trial. The numbers here used as salaries are only taken to illustrate the plan. The salaries actually paid by any county would be determined by the school fund of that county, and the requirements demanded would have to be regulated accordingly; but whether larger or smaller, could be arranged so that teachers would be paid according to their proficiency in teaching. Many other things could and would be done to increase the professional feeling of teachers, and that feeling once aroused, teachers would do much for themselves and for their profession. So long as salaries are regulated with no reference to paying for teaching abilities, so long will persons prepare themselves to get and hold positions without such reference. Let this glaring

absurdity be corrected, and many evils connected with our schools will disappear of themselves. A spirit of growth will be introduced which will produce a much better class of teachers, and as a consequence much better schools. There can be no improvement in schools except by improvement in teachers.—BASIL SOILLERS.

THE BENEFITS OF A TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

Among the important duties of the School Board is that of holding county institutes. There are many who do not understand the purposes for which the institute is designed. But we are sure that the money spent in paying teachers while attending the institute is a gain to the public at large, and of more benefit to their children than to the teacher. In the economy of our schools, teachers and people agree to abide by a third or central power. This authority we acknowledge and respect. By this authority the specific duty of holding institutes is imposed on superintendents and teachers.

The superintendent's authority or that of the Board is not diminished by the institute, neither does it lessen the work of the superintendent in quarterly visitations. To some extent the reports from the respective teachers act as a stimulus upon each other, and their reports become fuller and more inspiring by the exchange.

Teachers are brought into contact with other teachers, and discussion is apt to produce progressive and liberal views. It is well in everything to hear the views of others, and the effect is usually wholesome.

Taking into account the number of teachers brought together to consult about and discuss questions of school labor of the various departments and cultivate the social element, the county institute, if properly worked, is destined to advance every interest and in time become a wonderful power in the school system.

The proceedings of the institute are greatly enjoyed, and usually make a good impression upon all persons visiting them wherever they are held. This testimony is almost universal. The preparation and reading of essays and the discussions which follow, as well as the transaction of the routine part of the proceedings, tend to give such discipline to the minds of young teachers as might not be obtained readily without this opportunity. Patrons of schools have an opportunity to hear questions discussed of great interest to themselves and children. Everything which tends to disseminate an accurate knowledge of the wants and demands of the pupil, benefits the parents of the child. County institutes, if properly used, may be instrumental in doing much good in these respects. The intermingling of teachers of the county cannot fail to produce beneficial results. The social element can be cultivated and a bond of union established that may enhance the interest of the county. We believe, therefore, that the benefits derived are numerous, and calculated to render the various departments of the school more efficient. So much good has already been derived from them in their infancy that the future of the organization indicates that it will be one of the most important arms of service. To this end let every teacher be impressed with their obligation to attend its sessions. Young teachers especially, who have been invited to a more enlarged sphere of activity, should use these facilities lest their neglect may defeat the object they have sought to attain.—G. H. SEIGHMAN, *Funkstown, Md.*

NEVER TOO LATE.—It is never too late to learn. Socrates, at an extreme old age, learned to play on musical instruments. Cato, at eighty years of age, began to study the Greek language. Plutarch, when between seventy and eighty, commenced the study of Latin. Boccaccio was thirty-five years of age when he commenced his studies in light literature; yet he became one of the greatest masters of the Tuscan dialect—Dante and Plutarch being the other two.

SCHOOLS AND SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Great risks and great exposure to the body are involved in sending a child to school. It may mean merely such mind work as is too much of a tax upon the brain and nervous system. It often means indigestion, from a hurried lunch at noon or a fast until 2 o'clock. It often involves sitting in constrained positions too long, too close confinement in ill-ventilated or ill-heated rooms, and other experiences inimical to vigorous growth. A recent book says the first right of a child at school is to feel happy. One element in this is left out if the conditions are not such as favor his good health. Indisposition is a word of double meaning. That of the mind and temper are affected by that of the body.

There are most cogent reasons why children at school should be so provided for as that all their surroundings tend to a comfortable physical condition. Simon, speaking of artisans, says "that it is their right that whatever work their employer assembles them to do should, as far as is in his power, be divested of all unhealthy circumstances." It is a poor economy, too, for the State to present to all its children a free school system, if the perils of the school room are excessive.

No school should commence without a thorough knowledge on the part of its trustees as to the adequacy of the building, its desks, its heating apparatus, its general fitness for the conduct of the work purposed to be done in it. We wish the parents of the children would just now form themselves into a committee of the whole, and wait upon each board and find out just what they know as to sanitary inspection. All the more because so lately our New York boards have certified their competency to superintend all this matter. We happen to know something about school infections, school temperature, school air, school droughts, etc.

Let him find a faucet of water near a bowl where he may rinse his hands and wipe them on a paper towel, which he will

use up himself, and which will cost the trustees about one dollar a bushel. The room and building must have had excellent janitorship, so that it has been well dusted, cleaned and aired in the hours of its emptiness. How imperfect is this work done in most schools. There is poor housekeeping, and that always makes trouble.

Have the boys and girls fitted to their respective desks, not only with a view to convenience, but size. Often the blackboards are so located that a child must face a glare of light. Often the desks are so close to them that they cannot adjust distance to capacity of vision. Virchow, Loring, Agnew, and others have well pointed out some of these defects.

Laws of posture, both in sitting and standing, are greatly overlooked in schools, and slight spinal deflections from the natural line give future aid to one-sidedness. Brown Sequard has noted and explained how the use of one side too much and the other too little often disturbs bilateral sensibility and leads to nervous trouble.

Dr. Sequin read an interesting essay on "Nervous Diseases as fostered by School Life" before the last National Medical Association, and claims that physical considerations must enter far more largely into our system of instruction. Anemometers and thermometers can now tell us much as to air currents and the heat and degree of moisture of the air, while chemistry has ready aids to show us whether it is contaminated. Pale faces and puny forms and the tired look of the homeward group sometimes make us stand aghast when they tell us: "This is education." Ten minutes of calisthenics in a close room or an occasional antic of the gymnast will not recover the unnecessary wear and tear to which our children are too often subjected, because of unavoidable conditions in many of our public schools. We ask all parents, all school boards, and all teachers to put on their thinking-caps at once, and keep them on all this term in the school health interests of the boys and girls.—*Independent.*

FLOWERS AS MEDICINE.

Of all the parts of plants used in medicine or the industrial arts, the floral organs are those which would appear to be of the very least importance; yet they constitute, in many cases, objects of much greater commercial value than one would naturally suppose. Leaving out of view entirely the immense number of cultivated flowers sold in all populous cities for ornamental purposes exclusively, there remain a very great number that enter commerce in greater or less quantities for various other and more practical uses. Among such products we may mention, for instance, safflower, saffron, pyrethrum, camomile, roses, violets and a host of others of less importance.

Safflower, from the colored petals of which is extracted carthamine, extensively used in dyeing, in part from Southern Europe, India and China. Lyons, France, is the most important consumer of this tinctorial product, using it in great quantities for dyeing silks. The pink saucers of the shops are prepared with a thin coating of carthamine, and from the same product is derived the vegetable rouge of commerce. Saffron, although growing in many countries, is cultivated for commercial purposes in the largest quantities in France and Spain—what is known in commerce as “saffron” are the stigmas of the flowers. It takes about 30,000 flowers to produce two pounds of the fresh stigmas, which, when dried, become reduced to one-fifth of that weight. Pereira states that it takes nine flowers to make a grain of saffron, such as found in commerce, and about 4,320 flowers to produce an ounce. It is asserted that in order to obtain one pound of dry saffron, 107,500 flowers are necessary; some authorities even place the number as high as 200,000. Saffron is used in medicine. It is a native of Greece and Asia Minor; large quantities are raised in Egypt, Persia and Cashmere, whence it is shipped to India. Much of the drug we obtain is imported from Gibraltar, packed in canisters. Parcels are also brought from Trieste and other Mediterranean

ports. The Spanish product is usually considered the best. Roses are used both in perfumery and medicine. Extensive rose farms exist at Shiraz, in Persia; at Ghazepore, in India; Adrianople, in Turkey in Europe; Broussa and Usiak, in Turkey in Asia. The cultivators in Turkey are principally the Christian inhabitants of the low countries of the Balkan, between Selimno and Carloya, as far as Philippopolis, in Bulgaria, about two hundred miles from Constantinople. In good seasons this district yields about 75,000 ounces; but in bad seasons only 20,000 or 30,000 ounces of attar are obtained. Roses are also cultivated in England to a large extent, near Nitcham, in Surrey, to make rose water. It is estimated that it takes 2,000 roses to make one drachm of attar, or 3,000 pounds of the petals to obtain an ounce. The species of rose cultivated for its oil or attar is the Provence or hundred-leaved rose, the rose principally used in medicine is the French rose. Lavender is grown to an enormous extent at Nitcham, in Surrey, England, which is the seat of its production, from a commercial standpoint. Immense quantities are also produced in France, but the superior odor of the English product causes it to realize in market four times the price of the French article. The flowers are the parts used, both in medicine and perfumery. Half a hundred-weight of good flowers yields by distillation from 14 to 16 ounces of essential oil. The flowers of the common American elder and the allied European species are used in medicine and perfumery, for the latter use being distilled to make elder flower water. The cloves of commerce are the unexpanded flower buds of a tree, a native of the Moluccas and other islands of the Chinese seas. The average annual crop of cloves from each tree is, according to Burnett, 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, but a fine tree has been known to yield 125 pounds of this spice in a single season, and as 5000 buds only weigh a pound, there must have been at least 625,000 flowers upon this single tree. Several species of pyrethrum are cultivated in Europe for the sake of their flowers, which, when powdered, come into com-

merce under the name of "Persian Insect Powder." That which comes from the Caucasus is considered the best. The valuable insecticide properties of this powder have rendered it a highly important article of commerce. Over 500 tons are annually consumed in Russia alone. The camomile is a native of Europe, and grows wild in all the temperate parts of the Continent; it is largely cultivated for the sake of its flowers, which are extensively used in medicine under the name of Roman camomiles. These, as found in our shops, are imported from England and Germany. From the latter country are also exported in considerable quantities what are known as German camomiles, which are principally used by our German population.—*Exchange.*

FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSICS.

IV.—HEAT.

Teacher.—How much warmer it is to-day than it was last night; can you tell what has made the difference?

Pupil.—The sun has been up since morning and warmed everything around us.

T.—Then heat comes from the *sun*? Do you know of anything else that gives off heat?

P.—The *fire* in the stove and the flame of the lamp both give off heat.

T.—Yes. And a match touched to the hot stove will commence burning; but do you know of any other way to light a match?

P.—You can light it by rubbing it.

T.—How does the rubbing make it burn?

P.—Rubbing must make it hot, and then it will light as it did on the stove.

T.—Rub your hand briskly on your sleeve for a minute and see what the effect will be.

P.—It makes my hand so warm that I can't stand it long.

T.—Then rubbing, or *friction* as it is generally called, causes heat. Give some instances of heat being produced by friction.

P.—A saw or an auger gets hot when used because it rubs against the wood.

T.—Now hold this short piece of wire in the flame of the lamp and notice the change which takes place.

P.—It is getting so hot that I can't hold it.

T.—Then the heat of the flame must have been given first to the end in the flame and then sent from particle to particle until it reached the end in your hand. Thus we see that *Heat may be communicated from one part of a body to another*, and this is called *Conduction* of heat. Light a match and see how long you can hold it.

P.—I can hold it until it is nearly burned out, and the flame is very close to my fingers.

T.—Light this piece of folded paper and try it in the same way.

P.—I can hold it as long as I did the match.

T.—What then is the difference between the wire and the wood or paper?

P.—The heat was conducted to my hand by the wire quicker than it was by the wood or paper.

T.—For this reason the wire is called a good conductor, while the wood and paper are bad conductors, and by testing other substances in this way you can tell which are good and which bad conductors.

I placed the iron poker and a piece of wood about the same size on my desk early this morning so that one might be just as warm as the other: take hold of the stick first and then of the poker, and tell me which is warmer?

P.—The wood seems to be much warmer than the poker.

T.—They are really of the same temperature, but the iron appears colder because it is a better conductor of heat than the wood is, and takes the heat away from the hand faster. Advantage is frequently taken of the fact that some sub-

stances are better conductors of heat than others. For example, you use a stick or cloth holder to open the stove door because they are bad conductors and do not let the heat pass into your hand and burn it as the iron would. On the other hand, kettles and skillets and cooking utensils in general are made of metals which are good conductors, and will conduct the heat of the stove to the material that is to be cooked. On the same principle we use woollen garments in winter to keep in the warmth of the body, and we find that animals that inhabit cold climates are provided with furs or thick plumage. The buds of trees and plants are protected in a similar way, and to those plants which are near the surface of the earth, the snow, which is a very poor conductor of heat, acts as an overcoat to protect them from the severe frosts.—GEO. L. SMITH.

DAILY TALKS WITH SCHOLARS.

There is a great deal of general information which most people have, but of which many children will grow up ignorant, unless it is imparted to them by their teachers. It is that kind of information which, though found in books, is not condensed into any one book. It cannot be pursued as a course of study. It consists of fragments of knowledge culled from different sciences and from different branches of human learning and human experience. Those who possess a good store of it, draw it from no one source. They get some of it from books, some from newspapers, some from their fellow-men, and some from observation. The great mass of people who receive a common school education cannot study each science thoroughly; they cannot explore each department of human learning. Yet it is desirable and possible for them to know the main facts in those sciences, the most obvious and curious and profitable things in the different departments of human life and human learning. They cannot master astronomy as a science, but they *can* learn some of the most curious

and instructive facts about the size, distance and motion of the heavenly bodies. They may not become learned geologists, but many of the facts of geology are interesting to everybody, and they can easily master many of those facts. They may not become expert chemists, but they must become familiar with some of the curious and instructive facts of chemistry, and may become familiar with many of them. They may not become good political economists, or experts in dealing with the facts and laws of social science, but they may understand many of the facts which lie at the foundation of these studies. Then there are numberless facts and items of interest which do not belong to any science in particular. This study of general information has no bounds or limits.

Yet the masses will grow up devoid of general information, unless the children get a taste for it and form the habit of gathering it in from every source. Parents and teachers are the ones to help them acquire this taste and form this habit. Many parents will not do it; and many cannot do it, because they have not the taste or habit themselves. It is the object of this article to show how the teachers in our common schools can communicate a great deal of general information to their pupils, and at the same time help them form the habit of continually adding to the stock.

There is a great deal of knowledge lying round every study, which cannot be found in the text-books devoted to that study. Sometimes it is left out because there is not room for it, sometimes because the knowledge has sprung up since the book was printed. The more the teacher has of this outlying information, the better prepared he is to teach. In the recitation he can usually impart a great deal of it to his pupils. It should not be made too prominent. It should not supplant the regular lesson, but should be woven in with it.

Take five, ten or fifteen minutes every day for a general talk on some subject of general information. The best time for such an exercise is at the beginning of an afternoon session. The scholars are apt to come in at that time out of breath and

excited with hard play, not in a fit condition to commence hard study at once. The exercise proposed will, if interesting, help to prevent tardiness. Such preparation should be made for the talk as the teacher can get time for. Such subjects, or series of subjects, should be selected as can be made most interesting and profitable. If the teacher has any particular hobby, as botany, geology or history, he can draw upon it largely, avoiding technical terms and using plain, simple language. The teacher can take all sorts of subjects, or, if he choose, can have a regular series. Occasionally he can tell or read a story, or give the particulars of some fresh item of important news that he has just been reading in the papers. The following lists of subjects, not intended of course to be at all complete or systematic, will simply suggest the range of topics he can go over: The sun, moon, stars, meteors, comets, clouds, rain, snow, wind, sea, currents, volcanoes, glaciers, heat, dew, fog, the atmosphere, the Polar sea, the bottom of the ocean, fossils, strata of rocks, crystals, caves, mines, coal, iron, gold, earthquakes, tornadoes, the interior of the earth, Niagara Falls, Yosemite Valley, proofs in nature of the existence of God, profanity, lotteries, theatres, intemperance, tobacco, the telegraph, railroads, the microscope, the telescope, etc.

Some such book as "The Reason Why" will be of great value to him, as also works on geology, astronomy, botany, philosophy, etc. Moral subjects can be thrown in whenever it is thought best. They should not be entirely left out. The same is true of talks on etiquette. The teacher should give his scholars the privilege of freely asking questions, either during the talk or at its close, and also of suggesting topics for future talks. If they ask questions—as they surely will—which the teacher is not able to answer, he should frankly confess his ignorance, and promise to look the thing up and report some other day.

Much of the information which the teacher can communicate in these talks will be readily remembered by the scholars. They will be quite apt to tell at home the strange and useful

things which the teacher has told them, and thus, indirectly, the parents will receive instruction. Such talks, continued through a term or a school year, will store many youthful minds with a great deal of general information. But it will do more than that. It will help create a thirst for that kind of knowledge; it will tend to put the young into a receiving attitude, so they will go through life with eyes and ears open, drinking in knowledge from every source.—*New York School Journal.*

EDUCATION SHOULD PRODUCE HAPPINESS.

As a final test by which to judge any plan of culture, should come the question, "Does it create a pleasurable excitement in the pupils?" When in doubt whether a particular mode or arrangement is or is not more in harmony with the foregoing principles than some other, we may safely abide by this criterion. Even when, as considered theoretically, the proposed course seems the best, yet if it produce no interest, or less interest than another course, we should relinquish it; for a child's intellectual instincts are more trustworthy than our reasonings. In respect to the knowing faculties, we may confidently trust in the general law, that under normal conditions healthful action is pleasurable, while action which gives pain is not healthful. Though at present very incompletely conformed to by the emotional nature, yet by the intellectual nature, or at least by those parts of it which the child exhibits, this law is almost wholly conformed to. The repugnances to this and that study which vex the ordinary teacher, are not innate, but result from his unwise system. Fellenberg says: "Experience has taught me that *indolence* in young persons is so directly opposite to their natural disposition to activity, that unless it is the consequences of bad education, it is almost invariably connected with some constitutional defect." And the spontaneous activity to which children are thus prone is simply the pursuit of those pleasures which the healthful

exercise of the faculties gives. It is true that some of the higher mental powers, as yet but little developing the race, and congenitally possessed in any considerable degree only by the most advanced, are indisposed to the amount of exertion required of them. But these, in virtue of their very complexity, will, in a normal course of culture, come last into exercise, and will, therefore, have no demands made upon them until the pupil has arrived at an age when ulterior motives can be brought into play, and an indirect pleasure made to counterbalance a direct displeasure. With all faculties lower than these, however, the direct gratification consequent on activity is the normal stimulus, and under good management the only needful stimulus. When we are obliged to fall back upon some other, we must take the fact as evidence that we are on the wrong track. Experience is daily showing with greater clearness that there is always a method to be found productive of interest, even of delight; and it ever turns out that this is the method proved by all other test to be the right one.—*Spencer.*

THE SCHOOLMASTERS AND THE PEOPLE.

First, every man now occupied in the work of public instruction should put himself in hearty sympathy with the new education. Not that he is bound to snap up every novelty in methods, or throw aside the valuable results of his own experience at the dictation of anybody. The task of awakening the "heart and soul and mind and strength" of a child to the pursuit of knowledge, in the large way that builds up a trained manhood and womanhood, is the most difficult on earth—so difficult, indeed, that we should not too severely censure the man who, having learned one way of doing anything good therein, is over-cautious about unrigging his ship and trusting to Providence for another. But because the work to be done is so great, the opportunity for influence so vital,

we rightly demand that he who stands before the public as a master shall keep an open mind and heart, and never close the books against the results of experience in his profession. If anything is generally accepted in the higher walks of school-life, it is that what we call the "natural methods of education" are to be preferred to the mechanical habit of learning books by rote, and cramming the mind with facts (which so long has been the "old man of the sea" astride the shoulders of the boys and girls). The methods of instruction taught in our best normal schools, and approved by the vast majority of successful teachers, have the field, and are moving in the right direction.

The time has, therefore, come when a well-known class of masters should suspend their opposition to this movement, and fling open doors and windows to welcome the spirit that shall revive the school. It is a melancholy fact that all the cities and large villages, even of New England, are still worried by such a class of obstructionists. They keep alive in the parents an ignorant prejudice against the best methods of instruction. They baffle the efforts of the best people for effective supervision. They are at the bottom of a good deal of the hostility to the normal schools. They harass the young graduates from these schools by forcing upon them their own antiquated and barbarous style of stuffing the youthful mind with knowledge. Their intolerant and quarrelsome spirit makes them the plague of every school convention. They manufacture ammunition for the lofty creatures who overlook the education of the universe from the frost-bitten summits of high journalism, and reassure the tax-payer who would knock the bottom out of a township to reduce the rate a tenth of a mill. This class will do well to open mind and heart to the new education. Or, if this is too much to demand, let these masters try to rid themselves of that peculiar animus of opposition which is now a grievance to all progressive men.—*National Journal of Education.*

BE respectful to all men, that you may command respect.

BLACK LEAD PENCILS.

The use of black lead for writing and drawing is of obscure origin; for the references to something which may or may not have been a black lead pencil, by Van Eyck about the beginning of the fifteenth century, by M. Emmling a little later, and by Italian writers somewhat earlier, are very uncertain. Black lead is believed to have a vegetable origin, perhaps the remains in the primary rock of some vegetation which existed when those rocks were at the surface of the earth, just as the anthracite and bituminous coal deposits are the remains of the vegetation of a subsequent geological period.

It was in the year 1564 that the celebrated English mine of Barrowdale, in Cumberland, was discovered, and in the following year the first pencils were made from it. The black lead from this mine used to be taken out with as much precaution as if it had been diamonds—in fact, it was worth more than any ordinary diamond mine, for it used to produce from \$150,000 to \$500,000 annually, the mining of it being confined to only six weeks in the year. The crude lumps or blocks, in the course of manufacture, were scraped clean and sawed into plates of the thickness of a pencil lead, then a grooved stick was taken, one edge of this plate set in at one end and broken across even with the groove; then the plate was laid into the groove again, close to the end of the first piece, and again broken across, and so on until the groove was filled, when a piece of wood was glued on above it, and the pencil rounded into shape.

The processes used in manufactories now are much more scientific than the rude method described as employed with the Cumberland mine, one manufactory alone in the United States employing twenty-eight different patents in all parts of the manufacture. The greater portion of black lead or graphite used in this country is obtained from Georgia. The number of different styles of pencils called for by the public, from the commonest school pencil up to the very finest grade

for artists, is surprising. Including several styles of colored pencils or crayons, there are manufactured 360 different sorts of pencils, fourteen of which are made into black lead pencils.

In describing the operations which result in a lead pencil as manufactured to-day, it will be convenient to begin with the experiences through which the black lead is carried. Black lead is a soft, crumbly black powder, with lumps all through it, having its own well-known peculiar greasy feeling and gloss. This is refined by being mixed with water in a series of tanks, where it is stirred and left to settle, transferred and stirred and settled again, over and over, the impurities being gradually thrown out and the lead itself assorted by quantities. When this is done, about one-fourth of the original has been rejected as grit, earth, etc. The remainder is scooped into shallow saucers of pottery, like those used for flower-pots, but of a larger size, measuring, say, ten inches across; and in these, like so many mud pies, the precious stuff is placed in a drying-room kept at 120 degrees Fahrenheit until the moisture is thoroughly driven off. They are then crushed in a dry mill, transferred again into a heavy muller in a circular trough, where it is mixed with a different but finer-grained mud, which gives it a remarkable tenacity.

This mass is then subjected to the action of a three-hundred ton power screw-press, under which it finds no escape for its agony except in spiriting out through one small hole provided for it in a little solid brass die about as large as a thimble. The hole of this die is the shape and size of the lead—square, hexagonal or oval, large or small, as the case may be. Of these dies there are sixty, and it is passing through these that the first appearance takes place of anything like a pencil lead. It comes through the die an endless, damp, soft, tough, black string of strap, which is coiled on a board, moving back and forth and across, so as to bring the coil to a long oval. It is then cut into lengths three times as long as a pencil, laid in an oven, and subjected to a long, slow, delicate baking process, from which it emerges with all the qualifications of a pencil

lead. They are then cut into proper lengths, and are ready to be cased with wood.

A small quantity of white wood is used for some inferior pencils, but nearly all pencils made are cased in red cedar, which is cut in Florida. The logs are cut into planks, whose thickness is equal to the width of four pencils; they are then cut into laths, whose width is the thickness of the plank, and in this condition they are seasoned. These laths are then cut into strips as long as one pencil, but as wide as four. The next thing is to groove these blocks on one side for the leads of the four pencils, and on the other for the divisions between them. After being trimmed and smoothed, the lead is dipped in glue, laid into its grooves, and a thinner slip, just half the thickness of the grooved one, is glued upon it. After a little more trimming, they are piled into a pipe that lets them down flat-ways upon the table of a noisy, hurrying little machine. As each touches the table, a finger comes up behind it and quietly pushes it out to a set of saws that divide it into four pencils, which are instantly driven forward again into a shaping-machine, from which they fall—round and practical cedar pencils—at last into a box. Then follows the polishing; being laid on an endless belt that carries them rolling along under a set of furiously vibrating emory surfaces, from which they come out smooth and shiny. They are then colored and polished, and last of all comes the lettering, and this is the first time that we arrive at a process through which the pencils have to pass one at a time.—*N. Y. Witness.*

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

HOME LESSONS.—It is the custom in many private and not a few public schools to assign long lessons to the pupils for home study in the evening, and for recitation at school next day. It is the custom of many conscientious mothers to sit down with their children and assist them in learning their lessons. In fact it is only the children who have some help

of this kind that make good recitations. The others fail, more or less, and are punished, more or less. It seems to us that this is a very unfair division of the labor. The parent does the hardest part of the work and the teacher gets all the credit—and the pay.

Now we propose, in good faith, to reverse the arrangements. Let the teacher see that the lesson is learned, and let the parent hear the recitation. Then the parent can judge whether or not the pupil has been industrious and attentive. If he has been remiss, let the punishment be administered in the proper place and by the proper party—at home and by the parent.

What a reformation this would work! It would make the parent the judge of the teacher's ability, and supply him with the means of judging correctly. How careful would teachers be not to give long lessons! How patiently they would explain all the hard points! How diligently would they work to make crooked paths straight and rough places smooth! What a close and amicable partnership there would be between the teacher and the taught, both being jointly responsible for the quality and quantity of the work done!

It may be objected that it would be unreasonable to hold the teacher to account for defects which might be due solely to the incapacity or the perverseness of the learner. But incapacity is not a good excuse. Every child can learn something, and one part of a teacher's duty is to proportion the task to the ability of the pupil. If he errs here, he is deficient in one of the most important requirements of his profession. As to perverseness or obstinacy, such vices of temper have but little development under a good teacher. It is the incompetent practitioner that brings them out in full force. But granting that, as an exception, the progress of a scholar may be retarded by such adverse currents, the work of the teacher will, in the long run, be judged by the results obtained in a majority of instances; and the majority of pupils are neither perverse, obstinate, nor otherwise incapacitated. They are willing to learn, and able to learn, from those who are able and willing to teach them. So let us have a reform. Let the children learn their lessons at school, and recite them (if they must be recited) at home. *Suum cuique.*

THE public schoolhouse at Port Tobacco was burned on the 21st inst. The fire caught on the roof while the school was in session, and caused some excitement among the children. The building was originally a Methodist church, purchased by the School Board some years since and altered into a schoolhouse.

BOOK NOTICES.

ENGLISH HISTORY IN SHORT STORIES. 179 pp. 12mo. A. S. Barnes & Co. New York. Price, \$1.00.

The title does not well describe the book. There are few, if any, stories in it, short or long. There is a brief sketch of the reigns of the several English monarchs from Egbert to Victoria; how brief may be judged from the fact that none of them exceed two pages in length. But there are some things recorded, not hinted at in the title, not in the ordinary school-books, and yet well worth knowing. The first chapter contains a description of the "Royal Coat-of-Arms of Great Britain and Ireland;" apropos of the frontispiece which gives a colored representation of the Royal Coat-of-Arms, the Royal Standard, the Old English Man-of-War Flag, and the Merchant Flag. In the Chapter entitled "The Romans in Britain," we have a short account of the occupation of England by the Angles, Saxons and Danes; with a description of the British Crown and Crown Jewels; a sketch of the origin of Parliament; a carefully prepared account of the different ranks of nobility, and the various orders of Knights; a notice of the "Cabinet," the Privy Council, the Officers of the Queen's Household; a brief but very intelligible account of Heraldry; and a description of the seven kingdoms forming the so-called Saxon Heptarchy, all of which is very good reading, though "slightly mixed," and hardly germane to the "Romans in Britain."

AN ELEMENTARY GEOLOGY, designed especially for the Interior States by E. B. Andrews, LL.D., late Professor of Geology in Marietta College. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. 283 pp. 12mo.

Probably the best introduction to study of systematic Geology that has ever been published. The author has not attempted too much; but he has made an admirable selection; and what has been done has been done thoroughly.

FIRST STEPS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE. By Arthur Gilman, A.M. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 233 pp. 16mo.

A little more than a catalogue, and a good deal less than a history. This volume may be safely commended for its adaptation to the use of those who are really taking their "First Steps" in English Literature.

PHONETIC FIRST READER. Printed in the Alphabet and Spelling of the Spelling Reform Association. By T. R. Vickroy, A.M., a Director of the Spelling Reform Association, and a Supervising Principal in the St. Louis Public Schools. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Both those who approve and those who not approve of the "Reformed Spelling" will be glad to find in this primer the means of testing their respective theories. That the English language can be spelled phonetically no one doubts; that the language printed in phonetic characters will be more easily read and written than the ordinary text is also certain; whether a child accustomed to the phonetic characters alone will

find the newspapers and periodicals of the day easy reading; whether Shakespeare and Milton, Addison and Goldsmith will not be practically sealed books to him are questions that can be decided by experiment only.

FRANCIS MURPHY'S GOSPEL TEMPERANCE HYMNAL; Rev. J. E. Rankin, D.D., and Rev. E. S. Lorenz, Editors. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 123 pp. 12mo.

A very good selection of hymns, old and new, especially old; and with very little more "temperance" in them than may be found in any other good collection of equal size.

CORONATION HYMNS and Songs for Praise and Prayer Meetings, Home and Social Singing; Chas. F. Deems, LL.D., and Theodore E. Perkins, Editors. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 127 pp. 16mo. Price, 35 cents.

Another good collection of hymns. The editors think that it contains "more hymns that the world will not suffer to die, and more new hymns that deserve trial than any other book extant."

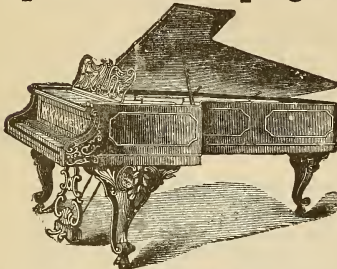
MATHEMATICAL TABLES, consisting of Logarithms of numbers 1 to 108000, Trigonometrical, Nautical, and other Tables. Edited by James Pryde, F. E. I. S. New York: R. Worthington. 454 pp. 12mo.

This volume belongs to "Chambers's Education Course," and comprehends, in a most convenient form for use, the most important tables required in Trigonometry, Land Surveying, Navigation and Astronomy. Their accuracy may be depended on.

THE JOURNAL OF SPECULATIVE PHILOSOPHY for January, 1879, opens with a discussion of the "Relation of Schopenhauer to Kant," by Dr. J. H. Stirling, of Edinburgh, Scotland, the author of *The Secret of Hegel*. This article is a sort of companion-piece to an article on *The Philosophy of Causality: Hume and Kant*, in "The Princeton Review" for January, 1879. Miss Ida M. Eliot, of New York City, translates the treatise of Hermann Grimm on "Raphael and Michael Angelo." Dr. William James, of Harvard College, discusses "The Spatial Quale," or the idea and perception of space, in reference to an article of J. Elliot Cabot, on "Space," in a previous number. Dr. James takes the physiological view, while Mr. Cabot's article took the metaphysical view. Prof. Thomas Davidson, of Boston, translates a letter on the "Philosophy of Thomas Aquinas," which he obtained from an Italian nobleman, through Father Domenico Marinangeli, of the cathedral of Aquila, in the Abruzzi. It is a most wonderful summary of the system of that great schoolman, whose contributions to Christian theology earned him the title of "The Angelic Doctor," and will prove of great interest to our theologians, both Catholic and Protestant. George Bruce Halsted, of Princeton, N. J., continues his interesting papers on "Boole's Logic," begun when he was at Johns Hopkins University, this time contributing a short paper on "Algorithmic Division in Logic."

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M. A. NEWELL,

Principal of the State Normal School,

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EDITORS.

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THE
MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

DEVOTED TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION.

Vol. V.

APRIL, 1879.

No. 7.

AN EDUCATIONAL CHANGE.

Great advances have been made in all departments of education within the last forty or fifty years, but in none more than in the common schools. A public school system, more or less efficient, is in operation in all, or nearly all, the States of the American Union. The school-houses have been so much improved that the children of the present generation have no adequate idea of the buildings in which their grandfathers, and even fathers, received their primary instruction. The back-breaking and chest-confining benches have given place to comfortable seats and desks. Blackboards and maps, now so common, were then unknown, except in a few highly favored localities. The books for study were then few, badly arranged, and not well fitted for those who were to use them; they explained very little, and the teachers but little more. Now blackboards, crayon slates, maps of all kinds, and books in spelling, reading, grammar, history and science are so many and so abundant in explanation and illustration, by words and drawings, that it is beginning to be a somewhat serious question whether anything in the way of study remains which will discipline the mind of the pupil, or even require much exertion by the teacher.

But a new departure has taken place in Boston, which promises to be better than some other novelties whose origin may be traced to that city. The instruction in the primary schools is to be almost entirely oral. The pupils are expected to learn from objects and from the teachers instead of from books. In this method lessons will be given upon pictures, animals, plants, geography, history, form, color, measures, minerals, the human body, hygiene, and whatever else the ingenuity of the teacher may suggest. The spelling-book is to be entirely discarded, and "some easy, common words from the reading lessons" are to be substituted. The metric system will be taught by means of the metric apparatus.

In the more advanced classes the changes are equally marked and important. The study of grammar in the old-fashioned way is abolished, and this science will be taught by means of analysis of sentences in the reading-books, composition and letter-writing. Writing in copybooks is reduced more than one-half, while the writing in blank-books and in other exercises is considerably increased. Less time is to be given to geography and more to natural philosophy and physiology. Music and drawing are to receive the same attention as formerly. There is to be a special and definite aim to make the pupils understand what they profess to study, and also to be able to express clearly and in appropriate words what they learn from time to time. The object is not to relieve the pupil from study, but to bring about more thoroughness.

Another feature of the plan is worthy of notice. Every study has a specified time assigned to it in the school year; nothing is left at loose ends. In the lower classes the subjects for oral instruction from May to November will be plants and animals; from November to May, trades, occupations, common phenomena, stories, anecdotes, mythology, metals and minerals. In the upper classes the subjects of oral instruction will be physiology, life in the middle ages, biographical and historical sketches, and experiments in physics.

These radical changes will probably commend themselves to

the favorable consideration of a large majority of the friends of common-school education. That they may be practicable in cities and large towns will be generally admitted, although there will be some doubt as to whether it will be possible to introduce them at present in thinly-settled rural districts. They are undoubtedly a movement in the right direction. But it is certain that before they can succeed there must be a great improvement in the attainments and abilities of the average teachers. They will throw a responsibility on instructors such as they have never before had, and will require a degree and versatility of talent vastly above what has been generally attributed to them. Yet if the demand is made and insisted upon, it will be met in the progress of time, and much sooner than many people may suppose.

In this connection, we entreat parents to take a deeper interest in the condition of the public schools, in the character and qualifications of the teachers, and in the progress made by their children. Hundreds of thousands of children and young people are now in these institutions, about which the great mass of parents and guardians trouble themselves very little. Such neglect can hardly be said to be a fault; it amounts to something approaching a crime.—*Presbyterian Banner, Pittsburgh, Pa.*

TRAINED TEACHERS.

The greatest fault with untrained teachers is, that they do little but teach the words and formulas of books. A normal graduate teaches things, principles, thoughts. Every point is examined orally; and subjects are sifted by the exercise of the judgment as well as the memory. The pupil is made to see with his own eyes, and to rely on his own observations. Books are a mere syllabus, a skeleton, to be clothed with flesh by the teacher and pupil.

Practical knowledge of almost every kind is worked in continually with the subjects of study. All the common objects of sight—such as flowers, plants, trees, rocks, birds, insects,

tame and wild animals, form, color and dimensions; manners, morals, laws of health; gymnastic exercises, drawing, and the cultivation of the voice—receive special attention. This common-sense knowledge of useful things is a vital part of popular education. Instead of this, how often are the poor children wearied with the endless repetition of mere words, the dry and stale lumber of the books!

The only way to make the schools the pride of the people, is for the State to make provision for thoroughly training a large body of teachers. When schools are established in every district, and a law is passed that none but competent teachers shall be employed, a profession is established, and persons can afford to prepare themselves for it. It will thus become a permanent and attractive occupation, when the schools become annual, and when graded schools open the way for promotion from the lower to the higher grades.

To make a suitable provision for teachers certain, it is necessary to establish normal schools—a proper function of the State. This will give dignity to the profession, and produce a radical change in the schools. Can anything be more desirable than these two objects? Is there any greater reproach resting upon our system of education than the low character of many of the schools, and the utter incompetency of many of the teachers?

It is by those who do not believe in progress, that a teacher is said to be "born, not made," which, in its true sense, only means that he should have a natural aptitude for his calling, just as if this principle were not applicable to a lawyer, physician, or even to an artisan of any kind. In addition to this aptitude, which only indicates what one's occupation should be, without fitting him for it, every man should be bred to his profession. To be a great scholar, even a genius must be a diligent student. To be a great general, one must be not only born to command, but educated to command.

There is nothing peculiar in the case of the school teacher. His profession is like other professions, and requires special preparation, as all others do, and for precisely the same reason.

The knowledge furnished best by our literary institutions is only half of what the teacher needs, and much the easier half. You will find twenty who have this qualification, where you find one who knows how to teach and govern. * *

The teacher must know how to enter the hidden recesses of the youthful mind, and from that point work outward and upward. The pupil is like a treasure in the sea, and the teacher like a diver who goes to the bottom to bring it up. If you do not descend and ascertain first exactly where the child's mind is, you will not bring him up where you are. The descent of the teacher is essential to the ascent of the pupil.

The beginnings of knowledge are obscure and mysterious. This is especially true of written language, the first thing with which the primary teacher has to deal. The sound of long *o*, for example, has seven different representations, and each of these has a different sound in other words. How does the ordinary teacher go to work?

He makes the child commit to memory the *names*, not the *powers*, of these letters. What would you think of the teacher of chemistry, who, instead of showing what oxygen, hydrogen and nitrogen are, should merely give out the names to be committed to memory? There is but one thing more absurd, and that is what an educated man once did, who could teach Latin, Greek and mathematics. He called up a child, and, pointing to the alphabet, said, "Go to your seat and get that lesson."

He who can begin with a child and skillfully carry him through the first fifteen years of his life, does the greatest thing that is ever done for him.—*Dr. Barnas Sears.*

THE Public Schools of the United States require \$2.02 from each inhabitant for their support, and military purposes \$1.39. In other countries these two items of expenditure are as follows: Prussia, 51 cents and \$2.20; Austria, 34 cents and \$1.39; France, 29 cents and \$4.50; Italy, 13 cents and \$1.57; England and Wales, 66 cents and \$6.86; Switzerland, 88 cents and \$1.

INVERTING THE DIVISOR.

Why is it necessary to spend so much time in explaining the reasons for inverting the divisor? How much time did mathematicians devote to this much-vexed question fifty years ago? What merchant ever thinks of it? What blockhead in school ever remembered it through vacation? Why have more than one rule for multiplication, and one rule for division of fractions? I teach but one rule in each, and find no trouble whatever, but much convenience from this course.

RULE FOR MULTIPLICATION OF FRACTIONS.

Change all whole and mixed numbers to improper fractions, then multiply the numerators together for a new numerator, and the denominators for a new denominator.

Ex.: Multiply 7 by $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{7}{1} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{14}{3} = 4\frac{2}{3}$. *Ans.*

“ “ $\frac{3}{4}$ by 6 = $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{6}{1} = \frac{18}{4} = 4\frac{1}{2}$. *Ans.*

“ “ $\frac{2}{3}$ by $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{12} = \frac{1}{2}$. *Ans.*

“ “ $6\frac{1}{2}$ by $6\frac{1}{2} = \frac{13}{2} \times \frac{13}{2} = \frac{169}{4} = 42\frac{1}{4}$. *Ans.*

Here the child has but one *pattern*; or, in other words, but one rule for multiplication, instead of half a dozen, as usually spun out in our arithmetics.

RULE FOR DIVISION OF FRACTIONS.

Change all whole and mixed numbers to improper fractions, then write the terms in the form of a complex fraction, and change that to its simplest form (or, multiply the outside terms for a new numerator, and the inside terms for a new denominator.)

Ex.: Divide 10 by $3 = \frac{10}{3}$. Here simply explain to the pupil that in all cases of division they must write the dividend for the numerator, and the divisor for the denominator.

Ex.: Divide 7 by $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{\frac{7}{1}}{\frac{2}{3}} = \frac{21}{2} = 10\frac{1}{2}$. *Ans.*

“ “ $\frac{3}{4}$ by 6 = $\frac{\frac{3}{4}}{\frac{6}{1}} = \frac{3}{24} = \frac{1}{8}$. *Ans.*

Ex.: Divide $\frac{2}{3}$ by $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{\frac{2}{3}}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{8}{9}$. Ans.

" " $4\frac{1}{2}$ by $6\frac{2}{3} = \frac{9}{2} = \frac{27}{4}$. Ans.

Here the child has but one pattern for dividing fractions. A few minutes of explanation will remove all difficulties.

If children are taught at the outset of their study of fractions, that multiplying both terms of a fraction by the same number does not change its value, that multiplying the numerator multiplies the fraction, and that multiplying the denominator divides the fraction, it seems to me this is all they need be troubled about in the processes of multiplying and dividing fractions, while in the higher arithmetic and in algebra complex fractions are often very convenient. Abridged methods of performing operations should be reserved to a later period, and not be allowed to confuse the minds of young pupils.—*New England Journal of Education*.

ARE THE "ELEMENTS" COMPOUND?

Mr. J. Norman Lockyer, editor of *Nature*, and a recognized authority on spectroscopy, has made a statement to the effect that reasoning from the analogy furnished by the spectra of known substances, calcium and other bodies usually regarded as elements are really compound. He read a long paper before the Royal Society, the principal points of which are as follows: Mr. Lockyer, about four years ago, commenced the preparation of a map of a particular region of the spectra of the metallic elements, for comparison with the map of the same region of the solar spectrum. For this purpose about 2,000 photographs of spectra of all the various metallic elements have been taken, and, in addition, more than 100,000 eye observations have been made. As it is almost impossible to obtain pure substances, the photographs have been carefully

compared, in order to eliminate the lines due to impurities; the absence of a particular element as impurity being regarded as proved, if its longest and strongest line was absent from the photograph of the element under examination. The result of all this labor, Mr. Lockyer states, is to show that the hypothesis that identical lines in different spectra are due to impurities, is not sufficient; for he finds short-line coincidences between the spectra of many metals in which the freedom from mutual impurity has been demonstrated by the absence of the longest lines. He then adds that, five years ago, he pointed out that there are many facts and many trains of thought suggested by solar and stellar physics which point to another hypothesis, namely: that the elements themselves, or, at all events, some of them, are compound bodies. In the presence of a small party of scientific men, Mr. Lockyer, by the aid of a powerful voltaic current, volatilized copper within a glass tube, dissolved the deposit formed within the tube in hydrochloric acid, and then showed, by means of the spectro-scope, that the solution contained no longer copper, but another metal, calcium, the base of ordinary lime. The experiment was repeated with other metals and with corresponding results. Nickel was thus changed into cobalt, and calcium into strontium. All these bodies, as is well known, have ever been regarded as elementary—that is, as incapable of being resolved into any components, or of being changed one into another. It is on this basis that all modern chemistry is founded, and, should Mr. Lockyer's discovery bear the test of further trial, our system of chemistry will require revision. Mr. Lockyer is one of the best living spectroscopists, and no man with a reputation such as his would risk the publication of so startling a fact as he has just announced to the scientific world without the very surest grounds. He is known by his friends as somewhat sanguine, and he does not pretend to be an accomplished chemist, but he is supported by some of our leading chemists, all of whom admitted that the results of his experiments were inexplicable on any other grounds but those

admitting of the change of one element into another, unless, indeed, our whole system of spectrum analysis is to be upset, the other horn of a very awkward dilemma. Since, a hundred years ago, Priestly discovered oxygen and founded modern chemistry, there has been—there could be—no discovery made which would have such an effect on modern science as that the so-called elements were no longer considered to be elementary. —*New York School Journal*.

PRIMARY WORK IN SCHOOL.

Pestalozzi is credited with the discovery of childhood. Every successful primary teacher makes the same discovery. As a result, our primary schools are becoming models of interest and adaptation; their means and methods are adapted to child nature. As flowers unfold amid sunshine and showers, so beautifully do children develop under genial influences.

I. *School-work should give pleasure.* As motion is in the line of the least resistance, so education is in the line of the greatest pleasure. Not painful, but pleasurable are the processes of development. The discovery of this pervading principle is working an educational revolution such as the world has never before known.

The old education was painful and repulsive. Studies were considered beneficial in the proportion that they were distasteful. The new education inspires voluntary and glad effort. Adaptation and interest are cardinal. The old education consisted largely of unmeaning task-work, which tended to discourage and repress. The new education leads the pupil to discover and apply, and thus fills him with boundless enthusiasm.

II. *Play is an educational process.* It is the wild spontaneity of child activity. Properly directed, the child plays up to work. To thus direct play, is the mission of the Kindergarten. This can be done largely in every family and every primary

school. The play-songs cultivate a love of music. The construction-blocks lay a foundation for inventive drawing. The exercise-plays develop strength and grace. The mother and the teacher who understand childhood will need no hints. There is a boundless field from which to choose.

III. *Hand Culture.* The child is incapable of abstract study. He deals with the concrete. (Ideas are developed through action. Results are *worked out*.)

1. *Reading.*—The object is examined. The name is spoken and placed on the board. The pupils find the word on the cards, print it on the board, write it on their slates. Words are combined and read. Lessons are written or printed on board and slates. Words are spelled and sentences written. Pictures are drawn. Objects are collected and brought to class. Constant activity and endless change characterize preparation and recitation. Hand work leads up to mind work. The pupils read well because they understand what they read.

2. *Drawing and Penmanship.*—The fact that every child loves to make pictures indicates a great educational law. Drawing educates the hand, develops taste, aids in the acquisition of knowledge, and is of great practical value. It keeps pupils interested and busy.

3. *Arithmetic.*—With small sticks, the numeral frame, weights, measures, etc., each pupil performs the operation. The board and slate are used without limit. The children are delighted because they can *do*, as well as understand the work.

4. *Geography.*—With a board and some clay and sand, the continents, the divisions of land and water, etc., are constructed. Maps are drawn on slates and board. The globe and outline maps are made to do good service. The divisions of land and water are all made on the play-ground. A solid geographical foundation is laid in actual experience.

5. Other branches equally engage the hand. Indeed, hand-exercise is the secret of success in primary school-work. The little ones are overflowing with activity. Let this activity be so directed as to keep them interested and busy. At the same time let it be so directed as to lead to knowledge and culture.

IV. *Voice Culture.* Speech and song are divine. All children delight in vocal effort. The teacher so manages as to make the vocal exercises educational. The child becomes an excellent reader, a charming conversationalist, a sweet singer. The teacher takes lessons from the children while at play, and trains them to be equally natural and eloquent in the school-room. Every lesson is full of meaning and full of action. Kindergarten has taught us invaluable lessons, true to nature.

V. *Body Culture.* Play, spontaneous activity, prepares for work—determined activity. Play is the best exercise for children, yet Calisthenics are indispensable. (1.) These exercises educate the body, give the children better command of the body. (2.) They are hygienic. By fostering a good circulation of the blood, they make the brain a better instrument for mental effort. (3.) They promote order by working off the restless activity of childhood. (4.) They tend to fit for citizenship. Pupils learn to act in concert, and thus prepare for the rhythm of society. They learn exact and prompt obedience to rightful authority, and are thus prepared for citizenship.

These exercises need to be frequent and varied, calling into activity every muscle. They must be adapted to the strength of the pupils, and must be so managed as to delight the children.

VI. *Action and Culture.* The following great educational principles pervade all primary work :

1. All education is self-education.
2. Personal and persistent effort is the condition of growth.
3. Child culture consists largely in well-directed physical activities.
4. The chief office of the teacher is to stimulate and direct child effort.

The day for parrot work, for stuffing, for mere book teaching, for stultifying and dwarfing, for lifeless, repulsive school-rooms, is forever past. Now, our little ones begin their education with glad activity. They see, and hear, and taste, and handle. They feel, and choose, and do. They begin with

nature and oral teaching, and from ideas are led to words, from words to definitions, then to books. They tread surely, because every step rests on a rock of personal experience. They move on cheerily, because each lesson opens up new beauties. They grow strong, because each step is a victory.—J. BALDWIN, in *American Journal of Education*.

THE CHILD'S EARLY LIFE.

“The early years of a man's life have great influence in moulding his character. As the pilot with a slight turning of the wheel changes the direction of the heavily laden ship, so events, apparently insignificant in themselves, acting upon the impressible nature of a child, may affect his entire destiny,” says Herman Krusi.

There is an ink used in writing that leaves no trace upon the paper, until exposed to heat, then every dot is legible, and, what before was unseen, is plainly read. The influences stamped upon the child's impressible mind by our moral and intellectual teachings are often unknown until the stern struggles with the world are fought in manhood's prime. Many of the experiences of childhood are forgotten in after-life, yet they all leave their impressions and silently control our lives.

It is related of Linnæus, the Swedish botanist, that when a babe his father would decorate the cradle of his child with flowers, thus cultivating in him a great love for them at an early age.

Clay has said: “I owe my success in life to one single fact, namely: that at an early age I commenced and continued for some years the practice of daily reading or speaking the contents of some historical or scientific book.”

It is related of one of the world's sweetest singers, that his talent was acquired while soothed to sleep by his mother's musical lullabies.

So lasting are the experiences of childhood that the Cath-

olies say if we let them have a child under their control during the first five years of its life, that no power can be successfully employed to eradicate their teachings; for the child's mind will become too thoroughly imbued with them.

Until the child becomes thirteen or fourteen years old, he is storing away facts to be used in after-life. He is full of questions, how and why; but they are oftener called out by observation than analysis. During these early years, while the child is storing memories' halls by careful observation, the instruction given should be very orderly, chaste and practical. His habits of thought and work are being formed, hence the necessity of careful teaching. The primary teacher will need a broad and cultured education. There will be a ceaseless demand of questions that will cause constant study on the teacher's part; so, if she would not weary with her work, she should have "almost an ignominious love of details." She should be a clear reader of nature, ever studiously searching this Book of God. Especially His little ones must she diligently delineate, else she cannot nourish each embryo mind.

Every teacher is in duty bound to avoid all that coarsens or pollutes. Let not the world's dust soil your life. Avoid ill-bred or low associates and literature. Avoid intemperance in anything, and above all, avoid the common corruption of king's English known as "slang." Don't, don't use that! Nothing sooner ruins our conception of the beautiful in expression, or engenders morbid and low tastes than this prevalent evil. Break up all bad habits. Be as nearly a model as any person can live. Remember none are as pure as little children.

Let one great test-aim be to polish and prune, not pollute, these little lambs of the fold. *True teaching* begins only when we *forget self*, when we devote ourselves to our pupils, forgetting pecuniary troubles and selfish desires, but remembering the good, and comfort, and pleasure of our schools. Only then are we following the Christian rule, and only truly honoring our profession by our presence. When our work

becomes a pleasure, it is ourselves that make it such. We are as sunshine upon it, receiving the reflection in return. As a pure and lovely mind makes a homely face beautiful, so a patient, pleasant teacher makes the most desolate school-room attractive.

If we would call out what is best in little children, we must carry around with us no cold, critical spirit; we must not act as spies upon their motives, nor be on the *qui vive* for defects and defeats. We must keep our hearts warm with love, remembering that patience never ceases to be a virtue with the teacher. If we pause to recall the infinite patience of home and Heaven that has borne with our infirmities in times past, we will be stronger, and readier to read the good in our pupils, and "be to their faults a little blind."

"Except ye become as little children"—pure, open-hearted, unselfish and innocent—you are not fit to lead them.—*Central School Journal.*

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Who was Samuel Rogers? He was a wealthy London banker, born at Stoke-Newington in 1763. His chief poems are "Italy," and "The Pleasures of Memory."

What else do you know of him? He was a clever, kindly man, very generous, especially to struggling literary men. He died in 1855.

Who was Thomas Moore? He was an Irishman and a lawyer, born May 28, 1779. He is remembered chiefly by his "Irish Melodies," and "Lalla Rookh" (Tulip Cheek), a glowing Eastern poem. He lived a gay, fashionable life, and died in London in 1852.

What do you know of Thomas Campbell? He was a native of Glasgow, and was born in 1777. He wrote the "Pleasures of Hope," and "Gertrude of Wyoming." His shorter poems

surpass the longer ones. "Lord Ullin's Daughter" and "Hohenlinden" are among his finest. He died in 1844.

Who was Mrs. Hemans? Felicia Browne Hemans was born in Liverpool in 1783. She was distinguished for the exquisite grace and pathos of her poems. "The Graves of a Household," "The Better Land," "Gertrude Von der Wart," are some of the best known.

What can you say of Reginald Heber? He was born in Cheshire, England, in the year 1783. He was educated at Oxford, where he greatly distinguished himself. He was made Bishop of Calcutta in 1823, and died suddenly, having been in the episcopate only three years.

By what literary composition is he best known? By a prize poem, "Palestine," and the missionary hymn beginning, "From Greenland's Icy Mountains."

Who was Leigh Hunt? He was a journalist more than a book-maker. He was born in Middlesex in 1784, and educated at Christ Church Hospital. In 1808 he made some statement about the Prince Regent that led to his imprisonment for libel.

What else do you know of him? He remained in this prison for two years. He was a light, graceful writer, and died in 1859.

What do you know of Kirke White? He was the son of a butcher, and born in Nottingham, August 21, 1785. He entered St. John's College, Cambridge, as a sizar, where he worked so hard that he died a victim to intense study in 1806. His poems and letters were published after his death.

Tell me something of Shelley? Percy Bysshe Shelley was the son of a baronet, born in Sussex in 1792. He was expelled from Oxford on account of his atheism, and immediately wrote "Queen Mab," a poem full of beauty, but also of rank infidelity.

Mention some of his other poems? "The Revolt of Islam," "Prometheus Unbound," and "The Cenci," a tragedy. Among his minor poems "The Skylark" and "The Sensitive Plant" are marvels of beauty.

Tell me of his end? He was out boating in the Gulf of Spezzia, July, 1822, when a sudden squall overturned his vessel. His body was washed ashore some days after, and it was burned. His heart was found entire among the ashes, and taken to Rome, where it lies buried under a mass of pansies and violets.

What do you know of John Keats? He was born in London in 1795. He published "Endymion" in 1818, which was so severely criticised as to almost kill him. He also wrote "St. Agnes' Eve," "Hyperion," and some other poems. He died in Rome, December 27, 1820, and was buried in the old Protestant cemetery, under the shadow of the Pyramid of Caius Cestius.

Who and what was John Keble? He was a Church of England clergyman, as well as a poet of high reputation, and was born in Gloucestershire, April 25, 1792. He was Professor of Poetry at Oxford, and allied himself with the High Church party. He wrote "The Christian Year," a volume of poems containing verses for each Sunday and festival day in the Church calendar. He wrote "Lyra Innocentium." He died March, 1866.

For what was Sheridan famous? Richard Brinsley Sheridan was celebrated as a dramatist and statesman. His great work is "The School for Scandal," considered the finest comedy in the English language. He was born in 1751, in Dublin, and died in 1816.

Who was Henry Hallam? He was the son of a clergyman, born in 1778, and educated at Oxford. His principal works are "Europe During the Middle Ages," "The Constitutional History of England," and an "Introduction to the Literature of Europe." He died in 1859.

What can you say of Miss Edgeworth? She was born in Berkshire, in 1767, though she spent nearly all her life in County Longford, Ireland. Her best novels are "Belinda," "Patronage," and "Tales of Fashionable Life." She also wrote many books for children. As pictures of Irish char-

acter, her tales are inimitable. She died in 1849, eighty-three years old.

Can you mention any other writers of this period? Frances Trollope; Ann Radcliff, author of the "School of Horrors;" Jane Austen, author of "Pride and Prejudice;" Lady Morgan; Mary Mitford; Theodore Hook, a dramatist, novelist and journalist; and Anna and Jane Porter, authors of "Thaddeus of Warsaw," and "The Scottish Chiefs."

What have you to say of Sidney Smith? He was a clergyman, more noted for his brilliant wit than his piety. He was born in Essex, in 1771, and died in London in 1845. His essays and letters on the subject of "The Catholics" are very celebrated.

Who was Lord Jeffrey? He was a celebrated critic, born in Edinburgh, October 23, 1773. He was the editor for many years of the *Edinburgh Review*.

What can you say of Charles Lamb? He was born in London in 1775, and educated at Christ Church Hospital. His entire life was devoted to the care of his sister Mary, who killed her mother in a fit of insanity one day. His literary fame rests upon "Essays by Elia," most graceful and delightful papers. He died in 1835.

For what was Sir John Herschel noted? Principally for his "Treatises on Sound and Light," "Discourses on Natural Philosophy," and "Outlines of Astronomy." He was born in 1792, and died in 1871.

Mention other distinguished men of this period? Sir Humphrey Davy; Adam Clarke, who wrote the "Commentaries on the Bible;" Robert Hall, a Baptist preacher, and Edward Irving.

Who was Coleridge? Samuel Taylor Coleridge was the youngest son of a country vicar, and was born October 21, 1772, in Devonshire. He was educated among the orphan blue-coat boys of Christ Church School, where he formed his close friendship with Charles Lamb.

What did he write? "The Rime of the Ancient Mariner,"

a strange and fascinating poem; "Christabel," a beautiful fragment; "Hymn Before Sunrise in the Vale of Chamounix;" "Genevieve," and many other poems.

What was his character? He was a dreamy, unpractical man, often commencing things which he never finished—his natural indolence being increased by his habit of laudanum-drinking. He died at Highgate, London, July, 1834.

Who was Robert Southey? He was the son of a linen-draper, and was born at Bristol, August 12, 1774. He was sent to the noted school of Westminster, from which he was expelled for an article which he wrote against flogging.

Where did he go afterwards? To Baliol College, Oxford, where he spent two years learning, as he himself said, to row and to swim.

What works have distinguished him? "Thalaba, the Destroyer," a poem describing the trials and triumphs of an Arabian hero, who fights with and overcomes the powers of evil; "The Vision of Judgment;" "The Curse of Kehama," his best poem; "Lives of Nelson, John Wesley, Kirke White," etc.

How did his life end? After years of incessant toil his over-worked brain gave out, and during the last three years of his life his mind was an utter blank. He died, near Keswick, March 21, 1843.

When was William Wordsworth born? Seventh of April, 1770, in Cumberland.

When did his first book appear? In 1793; it contained two poems: "An Evening Walk," and "Descriptive Sketches of Alpine Walks."

What was his greatest work? "The Excursion;" though some of his minor poems display his genius in its finest light, such as "Ruth," and "We are Seven."

When did he die? April 23, 1850, in his eightieth year, at his home of Rydal Mount, where he had passed the greater half of his long life. He was buried in the graveyard of Grassmere.

Who was John Wilson? John Wilson, better known under his title of Christopher, or Kit North, was born in Paisley, Scotland, in 1785. He was Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh for many years. His most famous works are "Noctes Ambrosianæ," "Essays," and "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life." He died in Edinburgh, April, 1854.—LIZZIE P. LEWIS, in *New York School Journal*.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

Lizzie.—What are you all studying so intently?

All.—The Figures of Speech.

L.—Well; if it were the figures of arithmetic there would be some sense in it. But in this busy world I should say there was no time for studying anything but what is strictly necessary.

Blanche.—Some things are necessary for use, others for beauty.

Fannie.—And figures of speech combine both; for they not only embellish style, but often render it clearer.

L.—Perhaps they will do for the poets, who must always be soaring in mid-air; but in plain prose we can dispense with them. If I am only writing "A Visit to New York," I have hard enough work to keep the thread of my narrative, without tangling it up with figures. I never used a figure of speech in my life, and never mean to.

Statia.—Don't be too sure of that, Miss Positive. You have used at least three within the last two minutes.

L.—How do you make that out?

S.—Why, I don't suppose you literally mean that the poets are always flying through the air like a flock of pigeons? And if the expression is not literal, it is figurative. And what is the "thread" of your narrative? If it isn't Clark's No. 40, or something equivalent, it is certainly a figure, and in that case you only figuratively "tangle" it.

L.—Well ; I seem to be in the same box with the man who had talked prose all his life without knowing it. But I confess I have never given any attention to the subject. Perhaps you can enlighten me a little ?

F.—Figures are just pictures in words. You made one when you said you were “in the same box” with the man in the French play.

L.—Really, I am glad we have entered upon this subject. I shall begin to suspect that I am a poet.

B.—Don’t flatter yourself. Figures which were at first striking have so passed into common speech that even the most prosaic people employ them constantly.

L.—Thank you.

B.—For instance, you speak of beginning the discussion of a subject as if a door had just been opened, through which we were “entering.”

L.—Open it a little further, will you, and give your figures a local habitation and a name, that I may know them by sight at least ? If I am prosaic, I want to confine myself to that, lest I should appear more like a goose than a swan.

S.—That is a figure, too. Whenever you express a resemblance between two objects, generally by the words “like” or “as,” you use Comparison or Simile, which is one of the most common figures, both in prose and poetry.

L.—When I say one of my hands is like the other, do I use a figure ?

S.—Hardly ; because that is a literal explanation of a fact. A simile either adorns or illustrates a subject.

L.—Then, whenever I say one thing is like another, which it isn’t like literally, I use a simile ? Thus : a gold ring is like an elephant.

F.—Why ?

L.—That isn’t a conundrum, it’s a simile. There is no real resemblance between them.

B.—But you cannot compare any two objects you choose in that way. They must have some point of resemblance, or it is not a true simile.

L.—So you make your figures by rule, do you ?

B.—Certainly ; there must be a pleasing or striking resemblance between the objects compared, and the comparison must be clearly stated, for the purpose of illustration.

F.—I read a striking comparison in Longfellow's "Hyperion" the other day. In speaking of the German author, Richter, he says : "His thoughts are like mummies embalmed in spices, and wrapped about in curious envelopments ; but within these, the thoughts themselves are kings."

L.—The thoughts "are kings," not *like* kings. Is that a comparison ?

F.—Yes ; but the comparison is not expressed in form. So we call it a metaphor. It is nearest to painting, of all the figures. The "battle of life," the "cup of sorrow," the "sword of justice," the "star of empire," a "fiery temper," a "hard heart," a "soft answer," are all examples of metaphors.

L.—Are there any rules for this figure ?

S.—Yes ; metaphorical and plain language should not be mixed together. A child cannot be a child and a flower at the same time.

B.—And we should not employ two metaphors together which are inconsistent with each other, like this one, used by a certain public speaker : "I must *embark* into the *feature* on which this question chiefly *hinges*." There you have a vessel, a face, and a door, all suggested by the same object.

S.—Here is another mixed metaphor : "If any individual can break down any of these safeguards which the Constitution has so wisely and so cautiously erected, by poisoning the minds of the jury, he will stab the administration in its most vital parts." That is, the individual referred to must employ a hammer, a cup, and a dagger, all at once. Now, somebody give a correct metaphor.

F.—"Birds of Paradise always fly against the wind ; and heavenly-minded souls move against the current."

L.—These figures are intelligible enough. Let us have another.

S.—A common, and often very beautiful figure, is Personification, or the endowing an inanimate object with life or personality.

F.—As children do with their dolls and other toys.

B.—Or as the sailor with his ship.

S.—Or as the old Greeks did, when they imagined every tree and fountain and river alive with some bright spirit.

F.—Or as the poet Longfellow, when he says—

“The singing chimney chanted low
The homely songs of long ago,”

or speaks of the brooks as

“Running with feet of silver
Over the sands of gold.”

B.—Here is an example from Tennyson—

“Of old sat Freedom on the heights,
The thunders breaking at her feet;
Above her shook the starry lights,
She heard the torrents meet.”

S.—Here is Personification combined with another figure, Apostrophe, which is addressing an inanimate or distant object as if it were alive and present. It is from Bryant's beautiful poem, “Among the Trees”—

“Oh, ye who love to overhang the springs
And stand by running waters, ye whose boughs
Make beautiful the rocks o'er which they play,
Who pile with foliage the great hills, and rear
A paradise upon the lonely plain,
Trees of the forest and the open field,
Have ye no sense of being?”

L.—Really, your examples have somewhat modified my idea of figures of speech, I supposed they were an overstrained and somewhat unnatural kind of language. People so often say with a sort of contempt, “That is only a figure.” But most of those you have given seem to arise naturally from the subject.

B.—That is the true test of figures. If they do not arise naturally, if they are overstrained, they are objectionable.

L.—Are all figures as simple as those you have illustrated?

S.—No; there is *Hyperbole*, which is the representation of a thing as far greater or less, better or worse, than it really is, for the sake of making a striking impression; as when we call a tall person “a giant,” or say, “he ran like lightning.”

L.—Now, that is unnatural, and a violation of truth. I must object to your hyperbole.

F.—Oh, it is a figure which can be justified only by strong feeling or a lively imagination.

L.—Neither strong feeling nor a lively imagination can justify gross exaggeration.

S.—Who will bring an example to convince her that this is an allowable figure?

[*Enter Mary.*]

M.—Oh, girls, you ought to have been with me! I’ve had a perfectly splendid time, only I’m tired to death.

F.—Where have you been?

M.—All over creation. First we went round the park, and everybody was there. It was just as full as it could be. Then we went over the river to see a friend of Katie’s, and they’ve got a perfectly lovely garden, and I ate a bushel of fruit—all kinds you can imagine. Then we all took a walk together, and we met the funniest couple you ever laid your eyes on. The man was so stout it would have taken a year to walk around him; and the woman was a perfect skeleton, and as tall as a church-steeple, with a real old-fashioned bonnet on, as big as all out-doors, with all the colors of the rainbow and several more on it. I thought I should have died of laughing. But what are you all so sober about? Oh, that rhetoric lesson! Isn’t it perfectly awful?

L.—Thank you, Mary.

M.—What for?

L.—For the perfect example of hyperbole with which you have just favored us.

M.—Why, what do you mean? I was just telling you the truth.

L.—Passing over the “perfectly splendid” and “perfectly lovely,” as simply contradicting the popular belief that there is no perfection under the sun, do you mean truly that the park was so crowded with human beings that it could not contain any more? Did you really eat a bushel of fruit, including cocoanuts, bananas, and the productions of all zones? Would it really have taken a year to walk around that man; and if the woman was a perfect skeleton, how was she alive at all? Would you take your oath that she was as tall as a church-steeple; and tell me, have you actually been all over creation, or only to the park and over the river?

M.—Oh, if you are going to take my words to pieces in that prosy style, I have nothing more to say. You’d have me as literal as the woman who, when her husband told her she could not take a joke if it were fired at her from a hundred-pounder, said: “Why, my dear, you know they can’t fire jokes from a gun.”

L.—Excuse me, not quite so literal as that. But we were just speaking of hyperbole, and I maintained that by its definition it is an objectionable figure, since it represents things as better or worse than they really are, which is contrary to truth. Your account of your morning’s adventures afforded an apt illustration. Seriously, it seems to me this fault of exaggeration is becoming a crying evil among us. Nothing is pretty but it is “perfectly lovely,” or distasteful but it is “perfectly awful” or “perfectly horrid.” We are always “as cold as ice,” or “as hot as fire;” “frozen to death” if we are a little chilled, or “almost melted” if we are rather warm—and in fact, so exhaust our superlatives that we have none left to describe anything unusual, and lose all power of discrimination in terms.

M.—Well; for all your preaching, I have a perfect right to talk hyperbole, if I like, according to rhetoric.

L.—I question the rhetoric, then.

S.—I quite agree with Lizzie that there is too much exaggeration in everyday speech, and that this is a fault to be carefully avoided. But surely more license is allowed to poets, and it is of hyperbole as a poetical figure that we were speaking. As to its being contrary to truth, no one is ever deceived by it.

B.—There is certainly high authority for using it in poetry. David says in his lament over Saul and Jonathan: "They were swifter than eagles; they were stronger than lions." And the Psalmist: "Rivers of water run down mine eyes, because they keep not thy law."

F.—The orientals generally use more fervid speech than is usual in our colder clime.

S.—We may conclude, then, that hyperbole is justifiable as a poetic figure, when it is the language of strong feeling, for which ordinary words are inadequate, but not in everyday speech.

L.—Have you exhausted the subject of figures?

S.—Not at all; there are many more. If it were not time for our recitation, I was about to speak of *Hypocatastasis*, or the substitution, without any previous statement of such a design, of one act or object for another. For illustration: When we speak of one "rowing against the tide," meaning that he is encountering serious obstacles.

M.—I like that figure. *Hypocatastasis*! I'll astonish somebody with that word.

WHEN misfortunes happen to such as dissent from us in matters of religion we call them judgments; when to those of our own sect we call them trials; when to persons neither way distinguished, we are content to attribute them to the settled course of things.

STUDIES AT HOME.

A "Society to Encourage Studies at Home" is one of those Boston ideas that are not only novel, but sound. The ladies who first conceived the idea of establishing this association desired to ascertain whether home studies for women were practicable, whether without the stimulus of competition or the hope of school rewards it would be possible for them to maintain a regular, steady course of study. For a long time the existence and objects of the society were kept from the general public; but as the number of students increased, the directors were strongly urged to allow a brief description of the association and its aims to be published, which was accordingly done in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*. But, although the existence of the society and its objects have been thus revealed, the confidential relations with the students are still maintained, and their names are not permitted to be divulged.

The society is said to number 899 students on its lists, and is extending its influence not only into all parts of this country, but even into Europe. The rules of the society are extremely simple. Students must be at least seventeen years old, must devote a specified time to their work every day, and must pay an annual fee of \$2 to cover the expenses of postage, printing and buying books. Any lady wishing to become a student can obtain a programme of studies from the secretary, No. 9 Park street, Boston, and, having determined upon the branch or branches that she proposes to pursue, will receive the special directions for the course she has chosen.

The principal ways of testing the progress of the student are by means of memory notes, monthly reports, and examinations by correspondence. At the close of the course each student is required to prepare an essay. There are six branches of study mapped out, and embrace the following subjects: history, natural science, art, German, French, and English literature. As indicating feminine taste, it is interesting to note the character of the studies most frequently pursued, and

it is a little surprising to see that some of the graver branches of study have been especially patronized. For instance, the students of history last year numbered 343, while those of German only forty-nine, and of French twenty-nine. Natural science was studied by 139, art by 114, and English literature by 347.

The amount of work which the ladies, who are at the head of the society, have to go through must be simply enormous. In the history course alone 3,009 letters were written last year, and in addition to the letters written in the course of the year there is an immense burden of other work connected with the society, such as the examination of reports, and of the answers of students to questions on the branches of study which they are pursuing, etc. Ninety-eight ladies are engaged in carrying on the work of the society, but as the students increase it will doubtless be necessary to call in further help. Certain special books are recommended in each course, and if the student is unable to procure them, they are lent to her from the society's library. Two hundred and fifty-three students made use of the library last year, and every year large numbers avail themselves of this privilege.

There can be no doubt that this "invisible university," as it has been well called, is doing a good and much needed work. It really does supply a want that has long been felt by large numbers of women everywhere. Our young ladies, as a general rule, after they have "finished" at some fashionable academy, are still in a very unfinished state, and would be much the better in every way for a liberal course of reading on some subject upon which they have merely touched in their regular scholastic course.

For those whose previous educational opportunities have been limited, the society offers advantages of a very high order. Especially will it prove a blessing to that large class of ladies of refined and studious tastes, who, with plenty of leisure and a desire to employ themselves with something deeper than the last fashionable novel, do not know exactly how to mark out a

course of study, and want hints and suggestions in their work. It is said that similar societies are to be organized in various parts of Europe, and that growing interest is manifested by ladies in all parts of the country in the idea and plan of the Boston association. Doubtless, other societies of the same sort will soon spring up in other parts of the Union, and it would be a pleasant and healthy indication if we could see such an enterprise established by the ladies of Baltimore.—*Evening Bulletin.*

STRONG IMPULSES.

It is a common idea that strong impulses and eager desires are sources of untold evil. Excesses of all kinds that ruin the welfare of the individual, and crimes that ruin the well-being of society are traced directly to this cause. Had it not been for his ardent desire for wealth, we say, such a one would not have lost his integrity; had it not been for his intense craving for excitement, another would not have fallen victim to intemperance; or, still another, but for his insane impulse to gain applause, would never have sacrificed his honor in stooping to flatter and deceive. Hence, many of the philanthropic efforts to remove these and other evils are directed to the suppression of impulse, and those persons only are considered safe and happy whose feelings and desires are too weak to require suppression.

Yet, plausible as this may seem, it is founded on an erroneous conception. Impulses are one part, and a very important part of human nature. Where they are strong there is energy, capacity, power, materials that may be applied to good or to evil uses, but without which we can only look for supineness, indifference, inefficiency, feebleness. The same source which supplies strong impulses and ardent feelings is also capable of generating firm principles and resolute self-control. Those in whom natural feelings are the most intense are just those in whom cultivated feelings may become the strongest. All power is liable to misuse, but we do not for

that reason cease to value it. The same physical strength that can rescue and support a drowning man could also be used to hurl him to destruction; yet a strong body is not, therefore, less desirable. The iron that is softened in the forge may be fashioned into a deadly weapon of crime, yet we would not, therefore, diminish the supply of that metal. So with impulses; they often seem to work out much that is injurious and evil; but, on the other hand, they are the sources of so much that is good and valuable that we cannot spare a single one or afford to lessen its power.

How then, it may be asked, shall we attack wrong-doing, if not by subduing the impulses that gave it birth? First, by recognizing that evil is a lack and not a surplus, weakness and not strength, negative and not positive. It used to be held by the medical profession that disease was a real substance poisoning the system, and that all medical effort must be directed to the task of expelling it. Modern science has, however, proved that disease is rather feebleness or irregularity of action in some of the functions, than any foreign element, and her efforts are now applied to assist and strengthen nature to return to her normal condition. It is the same in the realm of morals. Wrong-doing comes, not from too strong impulses, but from too weak a conscience. It is the latter that needs building up, not the former that needs pulling down. There is a lack of balance in the character which must be restored, not by withdrawing power from one part, but by increasing it in the other.

Take the child, for instance; how commonly do parents regret its intensity of desire for some trifling pleasure or plaything, and strive to curb and restrain it? How often do they mourn over its strong will, and set themselves the ungracious task of "breaking" it? Fortunately for the child, such efforts are seldom successful; if they were, he would run a fair chance of growing up into a feeble, irresolute, valueless person. It should rather be a cause for rejoicing when a child manifests power in these directions, for it proves that he has in him the germs of a noble and valuable life. The care should be that

other faculties are also alive and growing, that conscience be quickened, moral judgment be exercised, love for others be awakened. If his desires are keen, let him be taught to fix them on worthy objects ; if his will is strong, let him be encouraged to exercise it in accomplishing what he undertakes, in resisting what his conscience condemns, in adhering to what is good and true.

OTHER CAUSES.

It has been accepted as an almost undisputed fact that dram drinking is at the bottom of full nineteenth of the crimes committed in this country, but some one who has been curious enough to make the subject a study has learned from a careful examination of the prison reports, that there are other influences scarcely less potent as incentives to wrong-doing. The facts are stated as follows :

"Seventy-two per cent. of the convicts in the Michigan State prison are or were addicted to liquor drinking, but sixty per cent. had no trade. Of 489 prisoners confined in an Iowa penitentiary, 305 are without a trade education. More than fifty per cent. of those in Minnesota prisons never learned a trade, and at the penitentiary of western Pennsylvania more than three-quarters are without any form of industrial education. It is easy to trace the connection between this industrial ignorance and crime."

To the above facts we would invite the earnest attention not only of parents, but of those who have the management of our public schools. They teach the serious lesson that the young man who is not instructed in some useful vocation is at all times in danger of being seduced into the paths of vice and crime, and therefore, it is a matter of the first and highest importance that the studies he pursues while at school, and the mind is maturing, shall be such as will not only inspire in him a love for some industrial calling, but in a measure fit him for engaging in it.—*Anne Arundel Advertiser.*

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

THE SPELLING REFORM.—There are some sensible words on this subject in the *Educational Weekly*, by Superintendent A. P. Marble, of Worcester, Massachusetts. He says: "It is hard to spell English. Many good men make mistakes. Children spend a good deal of time in learning to spell; and after all, they never learn to spell all the words in our language.

"Some people are trying, therefore, to get up a new kind of spelling. Eminent scholars have given their support to the plan; . . . but the attempt to provide a mode of spelling, ready-made, must be abortive. A language *grows*; it is never *made*. Spelling is a part of the language, and must change by slow degrees. . . .

"Time is wasted in learning to spell, they say; if we only had the reformed spelling, two years would be saved in the education of every child. Possibly; but we haven't got the reformed spelling. . . . If reformed spelling is to save two years' study, and reformed language, four; then reformed arithmetic should save two; reformed geography, two; reformed reading, two—and we have twelve years saved from a course of ten!

"In this talk about saving time there is a great fallacy. Save all the time you will; yet the education of a child will take time. The mind must have time for growth, just as a plant must have time."

All very true and very sensible. But the question still remains, Do we not spend too much time in teaching children to spell? Is the acquisition worth the time and the labor? We think it is not; and yet we do not believe in radical spelling reform. Not because it is impracticable (though we agree with Mr. Marble on this point), but because if it should be carried out as its most sanguine supporters wish, it would not be a benefit, on the whole, but an injury.

Children could learn to read (and spell) books written in the reformed alphabet in less than half the time they now take. Granted; but they will want to read books printed in the ordinary way, also. Therefore, the reformed spelling must be learned in addition to the ordinary spelling. So we merely add to the child's burdens.

As the child must have *both* methods of spelling before his eyes, the new in his school-books, the old in his newspaper and books of amusement and general instruction, he will be always uncertain in his spelling, and anything like a uniform adherence to either method will be impossible. Teachers who have been troubled with the old and the new chemical notation will appreciate this difficulty. Those who have learned one system of stenography and have tried to change it for another, will have even a livelier sense of the perplexities which the radicals are preparing for us.

But suppose the reformed spelling to be ratified by the philologist, and approved by Act of Congress, and suppose that it entirely displaces the old spelling in our schools; suppose, in addition, that all the newspapers and magazines and new books adopt the reform—what follows? Why,

merely this: that for the sake of saving one or two years of the least valuable part of a child's school-life, we have closed against him the door of the accumulated treasures of English literature, except such a part as may be reprinted in the new alphabet.

This may seem to be an extravagant statement, but facts within the knowledge of all inquiring teachers will bear it out. That which is most needed is, not to save the time that is spent in learning to read, but to beget and encourage a taste for reading. The great difficulty against which we have to contend is, not the absurdity of our English alphabet (for ninety-nine of every hundred children who are sent to school manage to overcome it), but the fact that when children have learned to read, they do not want to read—at least, they do not want to read good books.

And now it is gravely proposed to add another obstacle; to render the language of English libraries unintelligible to all but *scholars*, by making the spelling obsolete. One instance of the effect of obsolete spelling will be sufficient. The old spelling of Chaucer has been retained because it is necessary to the versification; three or four hours of study would make the language of the Canterbury Tales quite intelligible to a boy of fifteen; yet no one will give the three or four hours' study. The "well of English undefiled" has been for ages "a spring shut up, a fountain sealed;" because the appearance of the printed page is strange and forbidding. And yet the spelling of Chaucer differs far less from our modern spelling than the proposed radical reforms would differ.

We can afford to make no such experiments as this. We must yield to the labor-saving demands of the day, as far as is right; but we must make English literature more attractive, not less attractive than it is. The new movement is favored by *scholars*, and naturally; for it appeals strongly to their scientific habits of thought; and they lose nothing by the change, for they recognize the identity of words under all possible changes of spelling. But teachers have to think of the interests of the young of the community, and no possible saving of time to children of seven or eight years of age can compensate for the mischief that would be caused by placing a stumbling-block at the very threshold of English literature.

It may be said that, though the present generation of learners would be injured, future generations would be greatly benefited by the change. This must not be rashly taken for granted. Were we sure that the pronunciation of the language would not vary, the benefits would be obvious. But as the new spelling must be rigidly phonetic, and as we know that pronunciation varies from time to time and from district to district, it must eventually happen (under the supposition) that there will be no uniformity in the written language. At the present day, a Yorkshire farmer can with difficulty be understood by a Cornwall miner, though they speak the same language—while they can both read and understand the same newspaper. The phonetic system, strictly pursued, will give us as many written dialects as there are varieties of local pronunciation.

Is there, then, nothing to be done but to stick to the dictionary in the

future, as we have done in the late past? A consideration of the objects aimed at by the reformers may show that there is much that may be done without entirely removing the ancient landmarks.

The object of the reformers is twofold: (1), to make reading easier to learn; (2), to make spelling easier.

As to learning to read, the best methods now in use will enable any child of ordinary capacity to read *every book that he can understand*, by the time he is ten years old. Why should he learn more than this? The acquisition would be simply useless. As his power of understanding increases, his power of reading will develop in proportion. The chief difficulty is not in naming the words, but in comprehending the meaning of what is read. The ability to name words may be acquired more easily by the use of a type with judicious diacritical marks, than by the use of the ordinary type; but it will not be necessary to use these aids beyond the First and Second Reading-Books.

As to learning to spell, it must be acknowledged we attach too much importance to it, and we give it too much time and labor. Probably the best remedy would be to give up altogether the teaching of *spelling as a fine art*. When a child learns to read a word, let him at the same time learn to write it. Let him write all that he reads, and read all that he writes. In three or four years, the habit of writing according to copy will be so firmly fixed that he will ever afterwards be able to write correctly every word that he has seen. For further knowledge he can go to his dictionary.

This treatment is, doubtless, too heroic for conservative teachers, most of whom consider a mistake in spelling to be quite as bad as an error in the multiplication table. To them we would say, slight differences in spelling, within certain limits, are of no consequence, and should be removed from the category of mortal sins and placed among things indifferent. We are not at all troubled by seeing "labour" in an English book where should write "labor"; or "traveling" in an American book where some would write "travelling." From the First Folio edition (1623) of Shakespeare's Plays ("Hamlet's Soliloquy"), we take the following samples of spelling: *Minde, arrowes, outragious, armes, dye, sleepe, heart-ake, naturall, shokes, heyre, too (for to), dreame, I (ay), shuffel'd, mortall, coile, pawse, beare, scornes, poore, lawes, spurnes, himselfe, fardles, countrey, borne, puzels, illes, flye, hew (hue), o're, currants (currents), turne, loose (lose), faire, nimph, orizons, sinnes, remembred*. No reader who is capable of appreciating the passage would be disturbed by these variations in the forms of words. Many of them are spelled differently by Shakespeare in other places. There are certain known analogies in the language, and any form of spelling which does not violate these analogies may safely be tolerated. The mere puzzles may surely be given up; such as *ent* and *ant*, *ible* and *able*, *ic* and *ei*, *eous* and *iou*s: By simply refusing to recognize the prescriptive right of dictionary spelling to exclusive use, we may do away with test-words (and all the labor they

imply), and save at least one-half of the time usually given to this non-productive study.

We had intended to specify a few rules and analogies that would be useful in reforming spelling on a liberal and conservative basis, but must defer it till another opportunity, merely adding, in conclusion, that it has not been our intention in the last paragraph to advocate absolute free-trade in spelling, but merely the adoption of more liberal ideas, and more elastic rules.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.—The regular quarterly meeting of the Baltimore County Association was held on the 21st and 22d of February. The attendance was large, and the exercises were conducted with even more than the usual spirit. A stranger, looking into the room, would have been struck with the marks of intelligence, culture and enthusiasm visible on every side. Evidently, the teachers of Baltimore county are among the *elite* of the profession.

The Teachers' Association of the 6th, 7th and 8th districts of Cecil county held their monthly meeting at Port Deposit on the first of March. The "Arithmetic" question—Brooks *versus* White—which had been discussed in February, was taken up again and postponed till April. Several interesting problems in arithmetic and algebra were presented and solved. In English Grammar the teachers wrestled with the question, "Is it correct to say 'The house is building?'" Next month they will discuss the question of "Home Studies and Lesson Hearing," as presented in the late School Report. The large attendance made it necessary to secure a larger hall for future meetings, and a committee was appointed for that purpose.

EDUCATION IN CANADA.—From the Annual Report of the Education Department (Ontario), we learn that the schools of the Province are in a highly satisfactory condition. The amount paid for salaries of teachers in 1877 was \$2,038,099; an increase of \$199,778 over the preceding year. This is the largest increase under this item that has taken place in one year since the establishment of the system; "and, taken in connection with a marked advance in the higher grade of certificate, would seem to prove the complete success of the efforts lately made to improve the professional status, and raise the remuneration of the public school teacher." The total expenditure for all public school purposes was \$3,073,489—increase, \$67,033. The school population between the ages of five and sixteen years was 494,804, and the number of pupils between the same ages attending the schools was 469,241. The average attendance (estimated as in Maryland, by dividing the aggregate daily attendance by the legal number of teaching days in the year) was 217,184—increase, 4,701. In the 5,140 schools reported, 6,468 teachers were employed; of whom 3,020 are men, and 3,448 women. The highest salary paid to a male teacher in a county, is \$800—the lowest, \$100; in a *city*, the highest \$1,000—the lowest, \$450; in a *town*, the highest \$1,100—the lowest, \$300.

The average salary of male teachers in *counties* was \$379—of female teachers, \$260; in *cities*, of male teachers \$735—of female teachers, \$307; in *towns*, of male teachers \$583—of female teachers, \$269. We are glad to see that the retrenchment mania has not yet reached our friends across the line—the average increase of salaries during the year was: for male teachers, \$14; and for female teachers, \$12. The amount expended in library books was \$5,537, of which one-half came from local sources; the value of free public libraries was \$169,001. Provision is made for superannuated or disabled teachers according to the following scheme: Each recipient pays a subscription to the Fund of \$4 for the current year, and \$5 for each year of service since 1854; he receives from the Fund an allowance not exceeding \$6.00 a year for every year that he has taught in Ontario. (Thus, a teacher who had been in the service thirty years would receive a pension of \$180 a year on becoming superannuated.) The government contributed \$35,500 to this Fund last year. Of the 478 persons who have been aided by this Fund, 448 were men, thirty women.

By recent changes in the school-law of the Province, the Education Department was authorized—

1. To grant equivalents in the examination of Public School Teachers for passing High School examinations.
2. To establish County Model Schools.
3. To prescribe regulations as to Elementary Teaching, and to make certain subjects optional.
4. To require as a further condition for Teachers' Certificates, that they should also possess a knowledge of teaching to be gained in County Model Schools, or in the Normal School.
5. To grant Second, as well as First-class Certificates to Teachers, after examination, by the Central Committee; the power of County Boards being limited in future to granting Third-class Certificates.
6. To restrain the granting of Permits and the renewal of Third-class Certificates.
7. To regulate and encourage Teachers' Associations.
8. To pay the travelling expenses and one-half of weekly maintenance of students at the Normal School, being candidates for Second-class Certificates.

Among the "Revised Regulations" we note that every rural school-house is required to contain twelve square feet of floor space, and 120 cubic feet of air for each child who has the right to attend the school.

The following is the Regulation regarding *light*: "The light should be admitted to the school and class-room behind or at the left of the children, and either from the east or north, but in no case should the children face it."

TRIP TO EUROPE.—No one who wishes to go to Europe this summer should make arrangements before sending a postal card to Prof. Burchard, State Normal School, Fredonia, New York, for his book "Two Months in Europe," and circular of his arrangements for summer travel.

BOOK NOTICES.

DIALOGUES AND CONVERSATIONS, Designed for the use of Schools, by Emily S. Oakey. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 210 pp., 12mo. Price, 75 cents.

The Dialogues are, many of them, well suited to school representation; original in subject, natural and lively in manner. They are not the less entertaining, that they are full of instructive meaning. The Conversations are for older pupils, and excellent in their way, though not adapted to dramatic performance, for which, indeed, they were not intended. We have given one of the Dialogues, "Figures of Speech," on page 259 of this number.

A HIGHER ENGLISH GRAMMAR, by Alexander Bain, LL.D., Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 218, 12mo.

There is more in this little volume than in any book on English Grammar that we know of the same or even twice the size. We cannot promise that teachers will agree with all that they read in it, but we are sure it will set them a thinking; and the more they think, the less they will be inclined to believe in their own infallibility.

AN ESSAY ON METHODS OF ARITHMETICAL INSTRUCTION, by F. W. Bardwell B.S., F.A.A.A.S. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 36, small quarto. Price, 15 cents.

The author's purpose is to point out obvious defects in the ordinary methods of Arithmetical Instruction, and suggest remedies. He believes that the ultimate object of the study of Arithmetic is to acquire skill in its practical applications. He does not recommend arithmetical drill for the sake of mental development, but thinks that the best mental discipline is secured "when knowledge and skill are acquired by the most direct and thorough means." The Essay is intended as an introduction to a new textbook, by which "in half the time usually allotted to the study of Arithmetic, the average pupil may acquire a more thorough mastery of the subject, while the subject itself becomes much more interesting."

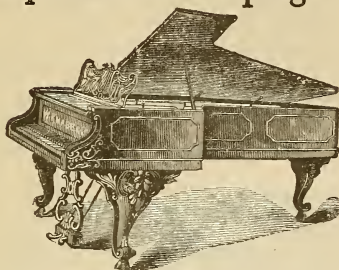
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THE MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

M. A. NEWELL,

Principal of the State Normal School,

CHAS. G. EDWARDS,

Pres't Teachers' Ass'n of Baltimore,

} EDITORS.

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HINTS TO YOUNG TEACHERS.

Be punctual. You cannot enforce punctuality on others unless you set an example of it yourself.

Keep a cheerful countenance; your face is a looking-glass, and should give only pleasant reflections. It costs no more to look good-humored than to look glum, and it will add seven years to your life. If you must put on a sour face, and wrinkle your brows, and let down the corners of your mouth, let it be in the dark, where no one will suffer from it but yourself.

Avoid forming the habit of fault-finding and scolding. Never withhold approbation when you can give it conscientiously. Never find fault unless compelled to do so. The withholding of praise will soon be regarded as an expression of displeasure. So you will save time and temper.

Give but few orders; see that they are obeyed promptly and fully. Give directions to a class in a firm and decided tone, loud enough (and only loud enough) to be heard by all concerned—the tone being that of command; disobedience will be a breach of discipline. Directions to an individual are better given in the form of a request, the tone being that of courtesy; disobedience will be a breach of good manners. “Attention! class; close books; take up slates!” “John, have the goodness to raise the window next you.”

Keep your class well in hand. Stir up the indolent. Restrain the restless. Give your instructions to the class, not to an individual. The class is the teacher's unit. The point to be gained is that every member of it shall be occupied with the same thoughts at the same time. Call occasionally for a general answer from the class by way of keeping them awake. Let the class answer by a show of hands; and call on *one* to answer orally. Never let two speak at once (except in concert recitations); nor *one*, unless he has received permission.

Give short lessons. Try to have them well recited. If you fail, and find that the majority of the class are badly prepared, inflict the usual penalty at once; drop the form of recitation; and *teach* the subject-matter of the lesson *viva voce*. You only waste time and temper by pumping a dry well.

If, owing to the weather, or your headache, or the weariness of the pupils, or any other "circumstances beyond your control," you cannot fix the attention of the class on the lesson, stop; change the subject; take five minutes for calisthenics, if the weather is cool, or a song, if it is warm; give them a conundrum or tell them a story; do something, anything, that will bring the thoughts of all the class into one channel, and then resume your lesson. Never allow yourself to talk to a restless and inattentive class. And remember, the restlessness and inattention may be as much your fault as theirs.

Order is essential; but it should not be your primary object. Order is to teaching what the shadow is to the substance; an accompaniment, a sign, an effect—not a cause. If a school is well taught, good order necessarily follows. But a teacher, well armed, may have good external order and do no good teaching. Such order is not "Heaven's first law." The more perfect the order in a badly-taught school, the worse it is for the scholars. Perfect silence, unbroken stillness, are not in themselves desirable for young children, however necessary they may be for good school-work. A good teacher will rather seek to produce them as the results of good teaching, than to enforce them as conditions precedent to teaching. Maintain

no more and no less order than is necessary to enable teachers and pupils to do their work efficiently. The mind cannot work to advantage unless free from external constraint and internal anxiety. Be careful, therefore, to make your pupils feel at home. Do not drive, habitually, with a tight rein, but be ready to pull up, at a moment's warning.

THE BEGINNING OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES.*

To the Prussian system of State Normal Schools belongs the distinctive glory of this day. To prove this, I must trace its history in New England.

At a literary *soirée* in London, August, 1834, I met Dr. H. Julius, of Hamburg, then on his way to the United States, having been sent by the king of Prussia to learn the condition of our schools, hospitals, prisons, and other public institutions. He asked to be my room-mate on board ship. I was too happy to accede to that request. A passage of forty-one days from Liverpool to New York gave me time to ask all manner of questions concerning the noble, philosophical and practical system of Prussian elementary education. He explained it like a sound scholar and a pious Christian. If you will allow the phrase, I fell in love with the Prussian system; and it seemed to possess me like a missionary angel. I gave myself to it; and, in the Gulf Stream, I resolved to *do* something about *State* Normal Schools. This was its birth in me; and I baptized it my Seaborn School.

After this I looked upon each child as a being who could complain of me before God, if I refused to provide for him a better education, after what I had learned.

*From an address by the Rev. Charles Brooks, at the "Quarter Centennial Normal School Celebration," in Framingham, Mass., July 1, 1864.

When the doctor came to visit me at Hingham, I told him I had been studying the Prussian system for six months, and that I felt called of God to try and introduce it into my native State.

He rose from his seat, seized my hands after the Hamburg custom, and said, "My friend, you are right; and I will help you all I can." He consented to give an account of the Prussian system before the Committee on Education, in our legislature. His delineations were clear and judicious, but so brief as led to no action.

I opened communication with M. Victor Cousin, the first scholar in Paris, with whom I had become acquainted in 1833. He approved most heartily of my plans, and sent me his histories of the Prussian, Hollandaise, and Bavarian systems of education, and especially Normal Schools. I sent him boxes of our school-books; and his letters for two or three years were my comfort and strength. I am sorry to say, the rapacious autograph-hunters honestly stole some of them. I published translations of them in our newspapers, and sent them to every town in Plymouth county.

I studied his books thoroughly; and, though I preferred the Holland system of governmental supervision, I concluded to take the Prussian system of State Normal Schools as my model and guide, and began my public lectures on the whole system in 1835. It was in a sermon to my people in Hingham. They did not ask a copy for publication. I had hoped they would, because in that sermon I had made this statement: "The whole Prussian system is built on these eight words—As is THE TEACHER, SO IS THE SCHOOL, and therefore we *must* have seminaries for the preparation of teachers, and I hope the first one will be in Plymouth county. From what I have learned, it is now my opinion that the Prussian system is to make a *new era in the public elementary education of the United States.*" I felt this strongly in 1835. It seemed to me there were grave objections to *private* Normal Schools, though taught by such distinguished men as Hon. James G. Carter, and the Principal

of the Andover Academy. Massachusetts needed associated *State Normal Schools*, owned, supported and governed by the State for the State's service. For such only I resolved to labor.

Much depended on a right beginning. I knew that the common people would be more moved by one *practical fact* than by a bushel of metaphysics. I therefore wrote three enormously long lectures, namely, two hours each. In the first I described minutely the Prussian State system, its studies, books, classifications, modes of teaching, government, rewards, punishments, etc.; a perfect catalogue of interesting *facts*. In my second I showed how this new system could be adopted in Massachusetts, and how it would affect every town, every school, and especially every family in the State; yes, I took it in my hands, and carried it from house to house, showing the parents how it would benefit their son John and their daughter Mary. In my third I showed that all these great, practical Christian results could be realized *by establishing State Normal Schools*, and could not be realized without them; and therefore the proposed school-reform must begin with introducing such Normal Schools.

After much reflection, I concluded that my most direct and powerful auxiliaries would be *conventions*. Accordingly, without consulting anyone of my own house, I issued, under my own name, a circular to the inhabitants of Plymouth county, stating the objects I had in view, and describing the good effects produced in Germany by State Normal Schools; and then inviting the friends of school-reform to meet in Plymouth in Court Week, and take action in the premises. I sent copies of this circular, printed on letter-paper, to each Board of Selectmen, each School Committee, and each clergyman in the county, requesting clergymen to read it on the next Sunday to their people. Most of them read it. The circular was kindly noticed by the leading newspapers of the State. The large meeting-house of the First Parish in Plymouth was filled; and I opened the whole matter as clearly and strongly as I

could, showing that the great work must begin by founding a State Normal School in Plymouth county. I invited the audience to catechise me as much as they could about my views and plans; and they did so. The audience warmed themselves up; and Ichabod Morton, Esq., deacon of the First Parish, rose and said: "Mr. President, I am glad to see this day. The work is well begun; the mass of facts now presented to us so plainly, prove conclusively the inestimable value of teachers' seminaries. Mr. Brooks says he wants the first one established in the Old Colony; and so do I, Sir; and I will give one thousand dollars towards its establishment."

I knew that the generous offer of this humble and pious man would do more for my cause than all my lectures; and I therefore secured a notice of it in every newspaper in Massachusetts. Thus, my client, the Prussian stranger, began its journey from the Plymouth Rock.

Mr. Morton gave me the first right-hand of fellowship; and, overflowing with zeal, he attended the next annual meeting of the "American Institute of Instruction," and after an earnest speech proposed the following:

"Resolved, That a committee be appointed to obtain funds by soliciting our legislature, the next session, and inviting individual donations for the purchase of land, and the erection of the necessary buildings, and to put in operation a seminary to qualify teachers of youth for the most important occupation of mankind on earth."

This was equal to a three-hundred-pound Parrot gun-shot in favor of educational reform.

For the numerous conventions I called, I always prepared the resolutions I wished to have passed; and they were generally passed unanimously.

In 1836 I gave public notice that I would lecture on the Prussian system of elementary instruction anywhere in the State, but, upon one condition, that I would not, under any circumstances, receive any compensation for my lectures or my travelling expenses. I kept this resolution inviolable, till I

saw the Legislature pass the vote establishing a Board of Education, *which, of course, secured Normal Schools*, and finished my work.

After my offer to lecture thus, invitations rushed in from every part of Massachusetts; and I commenced my missionary travels, and kept them up till 1838; having rode in my chaise over two thousand miles.

My mode of operation was this: To have a *convention* called to meet me in every place where I lectured; to have as long and warm debates as possible after each lecture, and then to pass the strongest resolutions I could write, and publish them in the newspapers.

When newspapers refused to publish gratuitously, I paid for the insertion. The whole county of Plymouth seemed to move at once; and I went from town to town, lecturing and debating, on an average, twice a week, and sometimes more. Once I lectured eight times in one week. All religious denominations received me, and clergymen of differing sects invited me to exchange pulpits, because all their people could go to hear on Sunday. Having taken Christian culture for the basis of my system, I could set the Prussian ideas in their true Sunday light.

I kept up as constant a succession of articles in the newspapers as I could. There were a few papers that laughed at me as a dreamer, wishing to fill a republican State with monarchical institutions. In the *Boston Daily Advertiser*, then the leading paper in New England, a graduate of Harvard College, in the class of 1811, after caustic criticism, ridiculing the idea of Normal Schools, concluded his classic communication by representing me with a fool's cap on my head, marching up State street, in Boston, at the head of a crowd of ragamuffin young men and women, who bore a banner with this inscription: "To a Normal School in the Clouds." Mr. President, the writer of that article, and the editor of that paper, believed that the absurdity and ridiculousness of my attempts were truly represented by the State street procession. Can we want bet-

ter proof of the abysmal ignorance of that period upon that subject? But enough of my discouragements. Their name was "Legion."

Plymouth, Hingham, Middleboro', Scituate, Duxbury, Bridgewater and Kingston took the lead in town action, in favor of Prussian Normal Schools in Plymouth county. New Bedford was wide awake from the start; and the week I staid there lecturing and debating filled me with hopes.

Some conventions passed eight or ten resolutions. But the four points noticed in nearly every convention were these: 1st. Deploring the low state of the public schools. 2d. Expressing a readiness for reform. 3d. Declaring a clear conviction that Normal Schools, after the Prussian model, would reform and vitalize the whole system of elementary education in the State; and, 4th. That the surplus revenue should be used for our public schools.

At the close of 1836, it was thought that Plymouth, Bristol and Norfolk conties were ready to petition the Legislature for a Board of Education and Normal Schools.

The Governor knew what we had been doing, but did not even mention our Normal School plan in his inaugural message; yet acknowledged interrogatively our Board of Education, thus:

"Whether the creation of a Board of Commissioners of Schools to serve without salary, with authority to appoint a secretary, on a reasonable compensation, to be paid from the school fund, would not be of great utility."

We were grateful for a little dew, though the State was ready for a copious shower; for six days after this speech, Jan. 10, the House of Representatives, by a unanimous vote, offered me their Chamber for the delivery, before them, of my two lectures on State Normal Schools! This showed the public pulse, and what the Prussian system had really done. This invitation was proposed by a member who was a stranger to me, and was as wholly unexpected as it was unsought. The whole heavens now seemed to me to be filled with rainbows. Public

notices brought more to the State House than the chamber would hold. I believe the Hon. Edmund Dwight got in. On that evening I laid out all my strength, and suited my lecture to my audience as well as I could. Both lectures were kindly received; and the next week the newspapers through the State contained communications from the members of the Legislature; some calling the new movement by funny names. I had a shower of invitations to repeat these lectures in different parts of the Commonwealth; and I went from Cape Cod to Berkshire, the only lecturer in the field.

While at Boston, I had the best opportunity of urging immediate action by the legislature of 1837; and the Committee on Education gave me a patient hearing. From what members of the Senate and House of Representatives told me, I felt it in my very bones, that the great questions of a Board of Education and Normal Schools were settled in Massachusetts, and, if settled here, then throughout New England. Mr. President, at that early time I felt the very same assurance that these blessed institutions would soon come into existence in the Old Bay State, as I now feel that the institution of slavery will go out of existence in rebeldom.

The Plymouth County Convention was held at Halifax, 24th of January, 1837. The circular I wrote convening it was very long; and printed copies were read from the pulpit; and every town, but two, was represented: some sent two delegates, some six, some sent all the clergymen, some the School Committee. I prepared, by request, all the business, the resolutions and the questions; also a draft of the petition to the Legislature. The convention was very large and intelligent; through a day discussed the vital topics with feeling and power, and voted unanimously to present the petition for Normal Schools, and requested me to attend to and defend it before the Committee on Education.

Mr. Ichabod Morton's resolution on the American Institute to petition for the same things, was accepted. George B. Emerson, Esq., was appointed to draft the petition; and he wrote

one, which, for comprehension of thought, force of statement, truth of reasoning, and persuasiveness of spirit, could not be surpassed. It must have carried conviction to every reasoning mind. It does my heart good to thank, for the second time, this distinguished friend of education for his Normal School petition. He has laid future generations among us under obligations to his personal labors as a teacher, and to his pen as a philosopher and Christian.

Feb. 28, 1837, Rev. Dr. Channing was moved to help us; and on that day, in a public address, he said: "We need an institution for the formation of better teachers; and, until this step is taken, we can make no important progress. An institution for training men to train the young would be a fountain of living waters sending forth streams to refresh present and future ages. We trust that our legislators will not always prove blind to the highest interest of the State."

The Board of Education was established by a vote of the Legislature. On the 20th of April, 1837, it was approved by the Governor; and, on the 29th of June, it was organized. This act was avowed to be prospective to State Normal Schools. Never was a heart fuller of gratitude to God than was mine. I felt that my work was done; for I had said in public and private, over and over again, that, if a Board of Education could be obtained, its first duty and interest would be to secure Normal Schools. Does not daylight in the east promise the coming of the sun?

I had proposed Hon. James G. Carter as the Secretary of the Board; but the choice fell on his rival, Hon. Horace Mann, who, on that day, was summoned to an unaccustomed calling. On that day he laid down his law-books, and took up his school-books; and what a scholar he made himself! Not a man in the Commonwealth could have planned more wisely or executed more successfully. The record of his labors will be his everlasting monument.

He invited me to keep on lecturing about Normal Schools until they were secured. I told him *they were already secured*,

and no power could stop them. I went through the State, lecturing on school-reform at Worcester, Springfield, Northampton, Deerfield, and many other smaller places.

Mr. Mann wisely adopted the system of county conventions. I requested him to appoint such a convention to meet at Hanover, Plymouth county, because I knew that Hon. John Q. Adams was at Quincy, and Hon. Daniel Webster at Marshfield; and I was resolved to secure their approbation of State Normal Schools. I invited them. Mr. Adams, in a very long letter, refused to attend, on account of his "ignorance of the subject." Mr. Webster said he would come, but, as he had a cold, would not speak. I was fortunate enough to get them both there. They listened to our explanations in the morning and in the afternoon. We had a noble, characteristic speech from each. I took notes, and printed the speeches in a pamphlet, and sent a copy to every School Committee and clergyman in the State, and also to each member of the Legislature of 1838, before whom the question of State Normal Schools was to come. The distinguished orators emphatically approved of our labors, and hoped that Normal Schools would be established, not only in Massachusetts, but throughout the United States.

The Board of Education began by instituting a course of lectures to be delivered by different gentlemen in the House of Representatives, appointing their secretary for the first lecture.

They invited me to deliver the second, and requested me to speak on "Normal Schools and School-Reform." My evening was the 25th of January, 1858. The newspapers reported my arguments for State Normal Schools; and the Governor, who wrote the first Annual Report of the Board of Education, recommended, eight days afterwards, that the Legislature should establish Normal Schools. Mr. Dwight gave ten thousand dollars for the purpose; and, on the 19th of April, the Legislature accepted his patriotic gift, and established the first State Normal School on this continent.

My cup of joy was full ; and the 19th of April, 1838, has ever since been a red-letter day in my memory. After the vote in the Legislature was declared, a witty lawyer said to me : "Mr. Brooks, was it an accident, or was it by design, that you had your Prussian egg hatched on the 19th of April?"

One word more for my client, the school-system of Prussia, and I am done. The Prussian system, with its two central powers, a Board of Education and Normal Schools, was not known in New England when I first described it in public in 1835 ; but, on the 19th of April, 1838, Massachusetts, the banner State, adopted State Normal Schools by statute. Remembering well how the good leaven spread in 1835-8, I say it was the Prussian system which wrought out the educational regeneration of New England.

The beautiful fountain "Arethusa" sank under the ground in Greece, passed under the sea, and re-appeared in Sicily ; but the Sicilians have never regretted the appearance of that foreign blessing among them.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

[Read Before the Harford County Teachers' Association, April 13, 1879.]

Vast sums of money are annually spent that education may be within the reach of all. School-houses dot the county far and near—everywhere they give the invitation, "Come, for all things are now ready." But, in spite of these preparations, there are thousands, even in this highly favored land, who will not accept the proffered mercy. For this refusal, there are given a variety of reasons which it is not my purpose now to discuss. I propose simply, within the limits of this short paper, to give a few of what we consider to be the most cogent reasons for the adoption of the principle of compulsory education.

As Americans, we are apt to refer with pride to our system

of common schools ; but if we look at the figures of the last census, we find a showing which an American, who might happen to be—say, in Prussia—would find little reason to boast of. Of 38,558,371 people in the land, 28,238,945 are over ten years of age, and one-fifth of this number, or 5,658,144, can neither read nor write ! Of these illiterates, 4,882,280 are native-born, and 777,864 are foreigners ; 2,879,543 are white, and 2,778,601 are Chinamen, Indians and negroes. The leaven of intelligence is certainly spreading, but not with the rapidity that any true American desires. Education is assuming a national importance, and the time must come when it will be a plank in the platform of one or both of the political parties of the country. Politicians cannot much longer ignore it. In the meantime, it has now become a question for Maryland as to the policy that will reduce her own hosts of illiterates. Aside from this, the very salvation of some of our schools, and perhaps of the system itself, depends upon a remedy being found for the existing evils.

We have established in this State an admirable system of common schools. Millions of dollars have been expended in the construction of school-houses ; we appoint teachers ; we forcibly collect taxes ; we elect officers of the law to see that this system is properly carried out. And now we seem to think that nothing remains to be done. We say by our acts if any prefer to be ignorant, helpless, vicious, criminal, let them pay the penalty. But forget it not, we too suffer—as we ought. We have done all we could, and more than anyone has the right to demand of us—you certainly do not expect us to go into the highways and byways, and call aloud, and even compel those children to come in ? That is just what we do demand.

The man who hears my words, perhaps, lives upon some broad avenue, or some cleanly and wholesome street. Day after day he comes out of his front door and meets well-dressed, well-fed people, who live in houses like unto his own. He *knows* that his back-windows, perhaps, look out upon the

abodes of poverty, ignorance and filth. He knows this ; but does not realize it. He knows that human beings, made after the same image with himself, are packed into vile dens, or rotting tenements, reeking with filth from stifling garret to moldy cellar. He knows that from this overcrowded, underfed mass of humanity, is bred disease, which stalks day by day, contaminating the moral as well as physical atmosphere with pollution and decay. He knows it ; for the eye of his reason tells him so. He knows it ; but he does not realize it. He knows that ghastly consumption, burning fevers, putrid eruptions, shivering chills, are stalking up and down in the alleys that crowd the rear of his sumptuous dwelling. By and by he hears that, following in the train of this ghastly procession, the loathsome giant of small-pox or yellow fever is raising its hydra head, and hissing and spitting its venom far and near. Then what does he do ? Does he say, 'There are the ordinances—there is the Board of Health ; there are the laws and the officers created for such emergencies ; I elected them—if I didn't, somebody else did ; my taxes help to support them ; if they choose to neglect their plain duty, what is it to me—it is no concern of mine ; I have no small-pox, no yellow fever in my house ? Is that what he says ? Or does he say, It would be wrong for the law to interfere with the personal liberty of these people ; I hear it is children who are dying of these dreadful diseases—poor little wretches ; what possible future is before them ; they are infinitely better off out of the world than in it ; it would be interfering with the decrees of Providence to attempt to stay the progress of these monsters of disease and death ; it is a blessing for them to be taken out of the world ; let them die unmolested ? Is that what he says ? Or, if inclined to be more merciful, does he find fault with the health officer, and grumble at the way in which his duties are not performed ; or, perchance, send his family physician into the alley to see what can be done to alleviate the distress ; and if the physician returns and says, These people refuse to let me help them, they refuse to take my medicines, they refuse to clean away the filth,

does he let the matter rest by simply saying "Very well—a man's house is his castle; I cannot force an entrance there; if they *will die*, let them, my hands are clean, my skirts are free from any responsibility?" Is that what he says and does?

He knows that sweeping up from that infected alley, every wind that blows carries with it the seeds of disease and death to his own family. If health officers and health laws are insufficient, or slow, or careless, does he sit supinely by and moan and fret over the danger thus brought within the circle of his own home? No; he rushes himself to the alley. If the people bar window and door, their window and door must give way. If they cry: "My house is my castle—you have no right to interfere; let me die in my own way;" they are swept aside and the suffering dying ones are taken to the hospital, where they can be cherished, nourished and nursed into life and health once more, while the infected house and alley is fumigated and cleaned. He does it, and he has a right to do it. A right as old as the world itself—the right to protect himself and his children. And who will say him nay?

There is no disease more destructive to such a government as ours than this disease of popular ignorance. If the infected people having the means brought to their very doors, by which their ignorance, their mental filth and moral corruption may be removed and they refuse to use it, then I say the government has the right to compel them to be cleansed. Nay, more, it is the bounden duty of the government so to do.

There should be a *moral* Board of Health, backed by every decent individual, every decent influence in the community. This should be done in behalf of the taxpayer, in behalf of the child, and of the general weal. The State has the right to do whatever it believes essential to the preservation of its prosperity, security and life. Upon this belief is the system of free schools founded. Upon this belief is levied the general tax for its support demanded by State law, collected by State authority. The State comes into a man's house, and says to him, "I take your money for the public good, and because it

is for the public good you cannot refuse to pay it. I take it from you, a property-holder, because the Government of the United States and of the State of Maryland cannot live unless there be intelligence among the people. Unless the masses are educated, there can be no security to life and property." We are aware that some of the taxpayers do not receive any direct benefits from the money claimed, for the heaviest taxpayers are not generally those who send their children to the public schools; yet you do receive benefit from the maintenance of good laws and the increased security to life and property which education brings. This is the argument of the government; and on the other hand the taxpayer may justly demand that the money he is *compelled* to surrender shall accomplish the desired result. He has a right to demand that these children who are thus provided for shall be reached. There is no room for discussion here—there cannot be two sides to the question. If you compel me to pay taxes to educate the masses, you must compel the masses to be educated. It is an axiom—a self-evident proposition.

If the State exacts, and when it is not given, arbitrarily takes from its citizens money enough to run the schools thirty or forty weeks in the year, its citizens have a right to demand that the State shall compel the attendance of the children for the thirty or forty weeks. If the one law is just, the other must be equally just. If public opinion consents to the right of a State to force a man to help to support schools for the benefit of his neighbor's children, that he may be indirectly benefitted in turn, the man has an equal right to demand that the State shall educate those children.

Take for instance two of the States that are admitted by common consent to have the best public school systems, Massachusetts in the East and Illinois in the West. In Massachusetts one-fifth of all the benefits are lost by absenteeism; and in some towns the percentage of attendance is as low as sixty. In Illinois with truant laws in force, the average percentage of absenteeism has been about nineteen. One out of

every five or six is not even enrolled in school. Of those who are entered on the registers only about 45 per cent. are in regular attendance for the time provided by law—six months and a half.

The public school fund raised from the people of the State by the authority of the State, with the direct pledge that it shall be used only for school purposes, and with the direct assertion that it was just the amount needed—*has* been used only for school purposes, I believe, except in one instance, but has been used in such a manner that more than one-half of it has been actually thrown away.

The citizens of this State may well say : “We are taxed to support schools thirty or forty weeks in the year for all the children in the State. One-fourth of all the children in this State do not attend school at all and fully one-half of the remaining three-fourths do not attend school half the time. More than one-half of our taxes, then, is extortion.”

Let us take another fact from the last census : The school population of the United States numbers 13,750,000. Of this number but 8,090,000 are enrolled in any school. Of these but 4,591,000 are in daily average attendance.

In a word in behalf of the taxpayer, study in school should be compulsory for the child, for the same term through which the maintenance of the school is compulsory upon the taxpayer. There should be a law at once equitable for the taxpayer as well as for the child.

The school code of Brunswick, Luneberg, in Germany, so long ago as 1738, provided that “parents must not imagine that, because the children are theirs, they can do with them as they please, but must remember that their children are also members of the Commonwealth ; that it is the duty of the government to have them educated, in order that the country may not be peopled by illiterate, brutal and ill-mannered people.”

The child is the ward of the State. If, socially, no one may come between a parent’s right and a child’s duty ; politically, no one, whatever his relation, may come between the

State and its subject. A man has no right to pursue a course that will certainly burden society with criminals and paupers. If such tendency is plain, society has a right to coerce him in self-defence. If the State protects the father's property from the thief, it should as certainly protect the child's mind from a more insidious and dangerous enemy.

Government asserts the right to protect the child from injury in life or limb at the hands of an unnatural parent. The parent who would maim or dwarf the mind of his child is guilty of a far more heinous sin and one freighted with vastly more danger to the nation—he should be punished with far greater rigor.

The system of compulsion protects the rights of the child, while it enforces the duties of the parent. To enforce what is a manifest duty is never an invasion or curtailment of rights. For the state to provide education for every child, but fail to provide that every child shall qualify himself by such education for citizenship, is to uphold the idea that the right of the parent to perpetuate ignorance—and in consequence, thriftlessness, intemperance and crime—is above the right of the State to self-preservation. Chancellor Kent once said: "The parent who sends his son into the world uneducated defrauds the Commonwealth of a good citizen, and bequeathes a nuisance." The State should abate and abolish nuisances. It enforces the right to send back criminals and paupers to the shores from whence they came. Has it not, then, an equal right to prevent their being raised and perpetuated in their midst?

The State holds that the will of the majority shall prevail. The majority has decided from the foundations of this government that the entire body of its people shall be educated; yet we consent to the constant violation of this law, and tamely submit to the incessant overthrow of the will of the sovereign people by a reckless or selfish minority.

The State grants to all its male citizens, not disqualified by crime, the authority of the ballot. The suffrage involves

power over others ; and, to power over others no inherent right can possibly exist. Whoever wishes to exercise it is bound to acquire the necessary qualifications. An educational qualification, and that of no mean order, is one that the poorest can acquire, and that the poorest should be compelled to possess.—GEO. H. NICHOLLS.

FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSICS.

V. HEAT—*Continued.*

Teacher.—We found in our last lesson that the sun, fire and friction, were sources of heat ; that some substances were good and others bad conductors, and that advantage was taken of these facts in the selection of clothing, the construction of implements, and, by nature, for the preservation of life. But these examples give us only a slight idea of what heat is doing for us, and how dependent we are upon it.

I have opened this window (on the leeward side of the house) at the top and bottom, and will hold this lighted candle, first at the bottom and then at the top. Notice which way the flame bends from the wick.

Pupil.—At the bottom of the window it bends into the room, and at the top it bends out.

T.—What makes it bend ?

P.—There must be a draught of air moving it.

T.—Then what is the direction of the draught at these two places ?

P.—It must be *in* at the bottom and *out* at the top.

T.—Let me try it at the door in the same way.

P.—The air goes *out* at the top and comes *in* at the bottom just as it did at the window.

T.—Now I will hold the candle at the middle of the doorway, and you see it does not bend either way, what does this show ?

P.—It shows that the air is not moving out of the room or into it, except at the top and bottom of the opening.

T.—If I were to let go of this feather, outside, where the wind is blowing, would it fall to the ground?

P.—No; the wind would carry it away.

T.—What is the wind?

P.—It must be air.

T.—But is there no air about you when the wind is not blowing?

P.—Yes; but it is quiet.

T.—Then *wind is air in motion*. Which way would the feather go if I let it drop?

P.—The way the air is moving.

T.—I will let go the feather which I am holding over this cold stove, what becomes of it?

P.—It drops on the stove.

T.—Now I will light the fire in the stove and let it get heated. While it is heating let us try the same feather over this lamp. Before it is lighted you see that it falls just as it did over the cold stove. But now I have lighted it, see what becomes of the feather.

P.—It goes up.

T.—Why should it go up now, when it went down before?

P.—The air must be moving up.

T.—And what makes the air move up?

P.—You have heated it.

T.—Yes; the heat of the flame heats the air and causes it to rise so rapidly that it blows the feather in that direction, and so you see it does over the stove, now that it is hot; and the hotter the air gets the faster it moves up. So we may learn from this that *heat causes air to rise*. Your bodies are warmer than the surrounding air most of the time, and the air in contact with them becomes heated and rises; so that if you could see the air, you would see it rising over your heads all the time, but your bodies heat it so slowly that it rises slowly and will not blow the feather up as the lamp did. Let

us see now what is happening to the air in this room. So many of us must heat the air considerably, and the stove is helping to heat it. What becomes of it as it gets heated?

P.—It must rise to the ceiling.

T.—And when I open the window at the top it goes out to get up higher. What proof have you of that?

P.—It blows the flame outwards.

T.—But while this is going out what is left in the room?

P.—Other air is coming in at the bottom to take its place.

T.—And how do you know this?

P.—It blew the flame of the candle in at the bottom of the doorway and window.

T.—If we have a fire in the fireplace, tell me what effect it will have upon the air in the chimney?

P.—It will heat the air in the chimney and cause it to rise.

T.—This causes what we call a *draught* in the chimney, but where does the air come from which takes the place of that which has been heated and gone up the chimney?

P.—It must come from the room?

T.—And what replaces that air?

P.—If the doors and windows are open it would come from outside, but if they were closed I don't see where it would come from.

T.—The cracks around the windows and doors generally admit air enough to keep up the draught, and at the same time ventilate the room, but sometimes we have to open them to increase the draught. Now suppose that one hundred acres of this land would become very much heated, as it does sometimes by the sun, what effect would it have upon the air over and around it?

P.—The air over it would become heated and rise, while that around it would rush in to take its place.

T.—And if you were standing outside of the hundred acres, would you notice that the air around you was moving?

P.—I suppose that I would think the wind was blowing.

T.—Yes; that is the only way you would know it, and

now you have learned what wind is, and what the chief cause of winds is, viz: Some portion of the earth's surface becomes more heated than another, and the air over that portion rises, then the air around it rushes in to fill its place, and this movement of the air is wind. If the earth in this portion becomes very much heated, the air rises rapidly, and the colder air rushes in as rapidly and produces high winds; but if it is only slightly heated, the cold air moves slowly, and we have gentle breezes.—GEORGE L. SMITH.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

I have spoken of objective incentives, but there are subjective incentives, and these are the most powerful of all. The young teacher naturally employs some visible object, as a medal, a card, or a picture, as a stimulant to urge on his pupils. After a more extended experience with human nature, he learns there are other influences that may be brought to bear, and motives that are more effective and more lasting. The defect with most incentives is that their influence ends with their attainment. A teacher offers a book to the one who will abstain from whispering for a period of time; it is awarded to a girl, with the expectation that having found she could do without whispering she will continue to do without it. Vain hope! She is more voluble than ever; and the teacher feels that another prize is an absolute necessity. Another defect is apparent when the teacher surveys the class that is called up to receive them. Are these the conscientious, pains-taking pupils of the school-room? Are these the ones who are at heart most desirous of improvement? No teacher but has felt pained on such occasions to see the deserving pupils sitting on the back seats of the room. Another defect may be entitled the "discouragement of prizes," and of this a great deal could be said. A pupil learns the difference between himself and

another so keenly that it takes away the life and interest of studying. In the world, the smart will make most money, but it never occurs to a pupil until put in competition with another pupil that he has not as good mental powers. He can feel as much, he can see as much, he enjoys as much; why then is he not the equal of the other? The prize is awarded to one whom he feels to be in some respects his inferior—in nice apprehension of right, in reverence for the teacher, in real love of knowledge, for example—and he is told he is mentally his superior. The effect is disastrous in many cases and reaches deeper than is suspected.

I have mentioned these points to draw the teacher's attention to the need of offering incentives that should leave no sting behind and should have a permanency of influence. The Creator sends His rain on the just and on the unjust; *rewards should fall on all that deserve them*, while medals, cards, etc., may be given as above indicated, based on scholarship, as a matter of necessity; as one would give quinine to a weak person, which, when the normal state is reached, he will not need. Reflect for a moment on the relation between husband and wife, parents and children, brothers and sisters. No one expects a prize or reward for service. The parent does not offer a medal to the one who shall be the best child, the one who shall show him the most affection. These relations are based on the enduring foundation of love; duty is done because it will give pleasure to another.

It may be said that such a state of things cannot exist in the school-room, that children are too depraved to be brought under the reign of love. In reply, the writer thinks, after years of teaching, that the hearts of school children can be reached and influences be brought to bear that will be not only permanent, but such as will develop with the child's development. At the same time, he admits that it requires in addition to skill a complete consecration of one's self to the good of the pupil; he must love the pupil as he does himself; his constant question is, What is for the good of my pupils? In

order to be perfectly plain and frank, he will add that a teacher of genuine, joyous, religious character, will be far more likely to succeed than one who is not; and yet that the motives which will be employed are not what are strictly termed religious in their character. Such volumes as "Record of a School," "Abbott's Teacher," "Page's Theory and Practice of Teaching," will enlighten the enquiring teacher, and he will find the subject so interesting, if he pursues it, that he will desire to try it. In distinction from the usual plan it might be termed the "Normal Method," not because it is used in Normal Schools or is practiced by normal students, but because it is a *pattern* plan or a *right* plan.

The basis of this method is love for the work, a confidence of one's personal power and in one's personal fitness, in a knowledge of the means by which human beings are actuated—especially childhood, and tact in employing such means as can be used in the school-room, it is the method of personal power. Here will come up the question, Am I fitted after this manner? Say what we will, some cannot teach, not from want of a knowledge of the subjects to be taught, but because they have no living sympathy with children. The one who loves to see a child a happier, stronger, wiser, and a more radiant being can teach, or at least can learn to teach; one that is impatient with children, prefers the society of older persons, cannot tell a thing twice, dislikes the plain and poorly dressed ones, is glad to see the pupils go and sorry to see them come, may well doubt whether he will make a teacher.

Perhaps the "Normal Plan" can be more clearly shown by an example than in any other way. Several years ago I visited a school where the teacher had been a pupil of the ever-to-be-revered David P. Page. It will be impossible of course to portray the *spirit* that actuated the teacher or the scholars. I shall not try it; the atmosphere is unseen in all pictures.

The forty or fifty pupils were of all ages; the room was scrupulously clean and pleasant; the whitewashed walls had a few bright pictures on them; the teacher's table stood near

the centre, and around it on four sides were the benches of the primary class. The teacher had slippers on and moved around the room with quietness and ease. My entrance had not disturbed the school—my knock at the door was answered by a pupil who showed me to a chair. At the close of the lesson, which was carried on in a brisk and pleasing manner, the teacher came and greeted me, and finding I was but a visitor, went right on with the lessons. Lessons, songs, brief remarks to inspire and encourage, followed on in rapid succession. I noticed the order particularly. Any pupil who wished seemed to speak to another; a pupil got up and left the room without permission, and returned promptly and quietly. When the hour for recess arrived certain signals were given, and the pupils left the room in a quiet manner. "Yes," said the teacher to my inquiry, "I say nothing about whispering unless a pupil disturbs the rest, or me; when he cannot be trusted with his freedom I take it away; he soon asks to have it restored. As to going out—that is on the same basis—they go when they wish, except when reciting."

"But does not a pupil go out and stay out a long time, or go frequently?"

"At first we had difficulty, and do now with a new pupil, but he soon learns. They lose a privilege if they abuse it."

Just at this moment two of the pupils came hurriedly in and said one of the little girls had been hurt. The teacher manifested the utmost concern. The child was taken on his lap, her hand examined and bound up with a piece of cloth taken from his desk, the tears wiped away, and she ran out to play again. The teacher followed, saying it was his rule to be on the play-ground as well as in the school-room. I noticed there was a rush made by the younger children (to whom he particularly devoted himself) when he came; soon he was in the centre of a ring (blindfolded) of merry little folks, guessing at the ones that touched him.

The bell to terminate the recess was rung by a pupil, and soon all were in their seats; I noticed what was uncommon in

those days in a district school, a tin wash-basin and a towel ; it was arranged so that those who had soiled their hands could wash them. I also noticed the care with which the mat at the door was used. I was led to believe that the teaching was *on all sides* of these young beings ; that they felt their teacher was very much interested in them and wanted to see them as perfect as possible. The first exercise was in music ; the teacher sang an easy strain, perhaps of three or four words, he repeated it and then asked any pupil to imitate it. To my surprise several hands were raised, and without embarrassment one after another sang it—some were commended as being right, others as having a good voice, and it was sung again and again. Soon all the school had it learned. This was succeeded by other lessons, all showing pleasure and animation. I do not remember anything that indicated that the pupils did not enjoy the exercise ; all received more or less commendation ; more was bestowed on the original, on the ones needing encouragement, and the timid and backward. The questions asked by the pupils were equal to those asked by the teacher.

When the time for dismissal came, it was delightful to see the affectionate "Good Night" given by each one as he went out ; the little child whose hand had been bound up coming back for a kiss. A few tarried to visit, not having enough of his society during the day. One wanted him to walk with him (a common practice I learned), another that he should take tea at her mother's house, etc.

The teacher here was not an extraordinary man in any way ; very plain by nature ; yet through the human heart in him, and the constant exercise of Christian graces, he had a very pleasing countenance. Sincerity and kindness were apparent.

"I used to teach," he said, "in the old plan until I heard Mr. Page. I felt there was a new and better way, but did not know how to reach it. I had been brought up to believe that children at school, no matter what they were elsewhere, were necessarily bad, and I was much taken aback once when I asked a little boy what made him so bad, to hear him reply,

‘No one thinks I am bad but you.’ Again, there is nothing intrinsically wrong in a child’s whispering; we would do worse, I think, ourselves.”

“What then is your method?” I asked.

“I try and render the school-room as pleasant as I can; I try to be as happy as I can; I try to bring out the best qualities of every child; I try not to discover he has any bad qualities; I give a child all the freedom possible; I have as few rules as possible; I feel interested in every child; I know the personal history of my child. There is one child that told me it had a white rat; I said, ‘I will come and see it;’ I went to see the rat, and the rat,” he added laughing, “has been here several times to see me. If you pay attention to any one, you know, you will make an impression. Now I pay attention to my pupils, and *they know it.*”

It is many years since I visited that school, yet the impression has never been effaced.

The lessons to be learned are very numerous. One must look at teaching in a large way; not as a petty trade, a little art he has learned. The teacher must bring the children up to him; he must not put a great distance between them and him. Jesus, the Great Teacher, took little children in his arms, an example for every one.

A speaker remarked once, “I find it hard to get *down* to children.” Another more accurately remarked, “The difficulty I have is in getting *up* to them.”—*New York School Journal.*

LIFE is itself neither good nor evil. It is the scene of good or evil as you make it, and if you have lived a day, you have seen all. One day is equal to and like all other days; there is no other light, no other shade; this very sun, this moon, these very stars, this very order and revolution of things are the same your ancestors enjoyed, and that shall also entertain your posterity.

THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.*

It affords me much gratification and pleasure to meet, for the first time, the teachers of my native State in council. I participate in the satisfaction that must warm each of your bosoms in the consciousness that another anniversary assembly finds your application unrelaxed; your zeal still ardent, your hopes fair and promising. The cause in which you are enlisted—that of public education, is a cause which commends itself not only to the philanthropist, the friend of his race, and to the philosopher, the enlightened benefactor of his age; but to the patriot, the lover of his country. It is a cause which speaks its own importance; it comprehends in its results not only the welfare and prosperity of the several States and the existence and stability of the Union, but the fate of a system of government—the continuance of which involves the decision of the question, whether men possessing the intelligence of civilization, and associating themselves together in societies, are really capable of upholding a constitution which confers upon them the enjoyment of wide-spread and general happiness, and the inestimable privileges of civil and religious freedom. This knowledge, by adding the promptings of an enlightened self-interest to the inducement of philanthropy and patriotism, ought to awaken all who are capable of forming sober and deliberate opinions—who, neither blinded by the vague speculations of political theorists, nor by the enthusiastic rant of popular declamation, are able to perceive, and are desirous of correcting the errors and faults of our social and political systems—who entertain an unfaltering trust in the tendency of our free institutions, when rightly understood and wisely aided by the diffusion among all classes of society of truth and virtue, to achieve the triumph of the great cause of human happiness and republican liberty—to the necessity of

*Read before the Maryland State Teachers' Association, August 28th, 1878, by R. Saunders Henry.

considering calmly and deliberately the important question, How can our system of public education be made still more thorough and complete, and what are its true objects? But it is not my purpose upon this occasion to spend time in mere encomiums upon a cause which is recommended to us alike by the daily experience of its advantages, and the instinctive election of our nature. Your Executive Committee have imposed upon me a task, viz: To discuss the public high school question; a task for the proper performance of which I truly feel my inadequacy, but I trust the integrity of my purpose will compensate for the feebleness of my performance.

Among the most formidable and serious obstacles which philanthopists have in every age and all countries to encounter and subdue, are the vigorous efforts of certain classes in all communities, who, endeavoring to support their own interests, are ever ready to make any changes that will increase their power and emolument, or to violently resist any changes that may hazard a diminution of such. If you will closely analyze the opposition which has of late been made to public high schools, I think you will find it to have originated among such classes. One class are political demagogues. We are well aware that political demagogues, to what ever party or profession they may belong, are, as it may naturally be supposed, secretly, if not openly, opposed to the whole system of public education. And why are they thus opposed? The answer is easy. Because an ignorant, idle and immoral population are more easily managed to suit the purposes of a demagogue than an enlightened and well-principled one. In Maryland we are happy to say that not yet has she fallen into so low a condition that the mass of her citizens and her *wise* legislators, under whatever party banner they might be enlisted, would allow their political leaders to break down, or even to interrupt the system which offers to every individual within her borders the opportunity to obtain an education at the public expense. In Massachusetts, where education from the most elementary to the highest branches of instruction has

been most liberally encouraged, the demagogues belonging to the profession of the politician, as well as the demagogues in all other vocations of life, have not been wanting in their wishes and exertions to bar the advancement of public education, and lower its present standard. In New York, Governor Robinson heads the list. He, together with the demagogues in the Legislature of his State, have raised such a breeze against higher education that they have blown down the Rochester Free Academy and turned out its 300 students. The "economical" politicians in the State of Ohio worked hard to abolish its fine high schools, but their attempts were in vain, and they have met a merited rebuke from one of their wise legislators in these words: "The high school is emphatically the laboring man's college. It is the head of the public school system. Only people without brains attack it; they do it for political purposes. They hope to deceive the laboring men into the belief that they do not need as good an education for their children as the more wealthy, who can send their children away to college." The fact is, we have too many "educational" demagogues in our legislatures. They go there and frame bills to relieve the people of heavy taxation, as they say, but really for the purpose of increasing their own power, influence, and popularity. They never dream of legislating against the real evils from which we do suffer. They wish to be considered economists while they rob Peter to pay Paul; they wish to abolish high schools and normal schools, and give thousands of dollars to second-rate academical and collegiate institutions, over which the State has no control; and just here I remark that every institution throughout this broad land that receives money for its support from its respective State, should be under the control of that State. Let us notice for a moment some of the arguments of these political men who have been the backbone of this crusade against high schools and secondary education generally. I think they may all be summed up in the language of Gov. Robinson viz: "That common school education is education enough."

That the State has a right to educate is everywhere admitted. If so, the State alone has the right to say how far; not a few sectarian doctors and political demagogues. Do Gov. Robinson and his followers mean to say that a mere knowledge of the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic is sufficient knowledge for a people who hold sovereign power in their own hands? Why, such knowledge may be made even mischievous by increasing the facilities for corrupting principles and depraving morals. The mind must be disciplined—the moral powers exercised to discern between the good and the bad—the intellect strengthened to discriminate between the hurtful and the useful. “Heavy taxation” is another cry of political men against higher education. I contend that the resources of our country are amply sufficient for any amount of expenditure that the wants of the country require. Our people can well afford to do anything and everything that is needed for their own good, and the welfare of posterity. People value what they pay for, and it is very desirable they should feel the expense of their public schools in order to properly appreciate them. The amount of taxation in this country is not to be compared with the taxation of every other existing government. To these political gentlemen I would say in the words of Wm. Penn, “for learning be liberal; spare no cost, for by such parsimony all is lost that is saved.”

Another class from whom we have heard considerable opposition to public high schools will include the Presidents, principals and friends of some of our sectarian colleges, seminaries and private schools. “These,” says a well known writer, “are the ancient, honorable and CHRONIC opposers of secondary education.” They have attacked us. At a recent reunion of the alumni of Pennsylvania College, held in Hagerstown, the Rev. Mr. Dimm, principal of a Female Seminary at Lutherville, Baltimore county, took advantage of the occasion to deliver an harangue before the Alumni of the college and the people of Hagerstown against public education, in which he paid marked RESPECT to high schools and

normal schools. We have no desire to question the motives which induced Mr. Dimm to make such a furious attack upon higher education. We are informed, however, that the public high schools of Baltimore county are doing a noble work—that they are well organized, and best of all, thorough in their instruction, and we suppose that many parents, who formerly patronized private institutions, now find it to be to their advantage to send their daughters to the public high schools. Mr. Dimm joins hands with the political demagogues to whom I have referred, and claims that reading, writing and arithmetic are the only branches in which the State should educate—that high schools should be reduced to this standard, his reason for which is: “That they cannot be reached by all the children,” and hence he recognizes their inutility, and the injustice in supporting them. Every one knows, or at least should know, that none of our institutions supported by the public are ever reached by ALL those for whom they were intended. According to Mr. Dimm’s own statistics, there are 8,000 children in Baltimore city, and 33 per cent. of the children of Maryland, who never reach the primary schools, therefore, *all* the public schools should be abolished. The Naval Academy, West Point, Maryland Penitentiary, Baltimore City Jail and House of Refuge should be pulled down, and Washington county’s new Alms House should never be built. Mr. Dimm’s argument is almost *too powerful*. He stated also that high schools could not compare with private schools in the preparation of students for college. This, I contend, is not true; our free high schools are doing this work constantly, and doing it well. I was informed by one of the faculty of the *same* college before whose alumni Mr. Dimm made his speech, that the students who came to them from public schools, as a general thing, were much better prepared than those who came from private schools. I make this reference in answer to Mr. Dimm, not that I wish to infer that public high schools are the only schools which do this work well, for we have some time-honored preparatory schools in

Maryland; and also to show that our people are finding out the high school can be used for all good purposes, and at much less cost, and there is a popular determination to make it adequate for the wants of all, notwithstanding the disparagement of those sectarian doctors who can not well afford to assail its interests, or provoke comparison and rivalry. Another objection, urged by the same gentleman, against the higher public schools, is: That they do not teach morality, that private schools and colleges are "the framers and crystalizers of character." I contend that there are very few male or female institutions, no matter how thick may be the "ecclesiastical hedge fence" around them, that do not offer greater facilities for demoralization than a well conducted public school, from the fact that they are irresponsible, and not open to public inspection. The colleges are worse than the academies and seminaries.

[To be Continued.]

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

SUPERNUMERARY TEACHERS.—A resolution on this subject has been offered in the Board of Public School Commissioners of Baltimore City, and the subject has been taken up by one of the daily papers, and discussed with the amount of ability and discrimination usually shown by the press when expatiating in a general way on subjects requiring a considerable amount of technical information. It seems reasonable enough to the general public, that when one school has more than the legal number of teachers, and another less, the former should have the supernumerary teacher transferred to the latter. But the practical application of the principle involves difficulties of which the general public has no conception.

The Rules of Order of the School Board allow one assistant teacher to every forty pupils (after the first sixty), and there must be an average attendance of forty, in addition to the ordinary number, for at least two weeks, to entitle a school to an additional teacher. Let us take an example. Grammar School No. 50 had, at the opening, in September, 140 pupils, arranged in four classes under four teachers, a Principal and three Assistants. During the fall the numbers increase, until in January there is an average attendance of 180, and the school is entitled to another teacher. The additional teacher is ob-

tained, and the school is organized in five classes, numbering, let us say, 20, 30, 35, 45, 50 respectively, beginning with the first class. Now let us suppose that on the first of March the school numbers 170 pupils. Under the rule the last teacher will be transferred to another school, and Grammar School No. 50 must be re-organized in four classes, which will number 20, 30, 50 and 70.

The general public knows very well that it is impossible for one teacher to do justice to seventy children in a primary class. It is almost impossible to crowd them into any of our class-rooms. It is quite impossible, when they are packed there, to supply them with one-fourth of the quantity of fresh air which they require. To teach them, under the circumstances, is simply out of the question; and yet this difficulty comes from the mere enforcement of a rule which is based on proper principles and was intended to serve a useful purpose, namely, to prevent the undue multiplication of teachers.

We are inclined to believe that a due regard for economy will not permit the employment of a larger proportion of teachers than the present rules allow—one to forty. We would like to see it supplemented by another rule, that in no case should the number of pupils assigned to one class exceed fifty. The prevailing practice of over-crowding the lower classes in order to have the upper classes more evenly graded, should be discouraged and suppressed.

A story is told—we do not vouch for the truth of it—of a school in this city having eleven pupils in the Principal's class, and seventy-six in the lowest class. If not true, it might have been. And the Principal might justly have said in his defence, "There are no more than eleven fit to be in my class." The only remedy is to fill up the higher classes, putting two grades in a class, if necessary, until not more than fifty are left in any class. Grammar School No. 50 would then have four classes, of 50, 50, 40 and 30, respectively. Should the numbers increase, the increase would, in all probability, be in the lowest (and smallest) class. When 180 should again be reached and an additional assistant employed, this teacher might act as a floating teacher, giving assistance in the first and second classes principally, until a convenient time should come for a new organization of the school.

We do not wish to conceal from our readers that this plan is open to serious objections; we know how hard it is for even experienced teachers to deal with imperfectly graded classes; but the difficulty is not greater in the city than it is in the country, and country teachers have grappled with it successfully. Were it still greater, however, than it is, it would be better for the interests of the public than the ruinous practice of crowding sixty, seventy or eighty children into a room built for forty, and not adequate to that number; and placing them under the direction of the most inexperienced teacher of the school.

Let us hope to see these two rules placed side by side in the next edition of the Rules of Order: "There shall be one assistant to every forty

pupils in average attendance after the first sixty. Not more than fifty pupils shall be assigned to one teacher."

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.—The Teachers' Association of Harford County met at Bel-Air on the 14th and 15th of April. There was a good attendance in spite of the cloudy weather; and the debates and other exercises were conducted with much spirit. It is quite refreshing to find teachers so wide-awake as our friends in Harford.

The District Association meeting, at Port Deposit, Cecil County, held their usual monthly meeting on the 5th inst., which was attended by *all* the members, with but three exceptions. A very large audience of citizens was present, and seemed much interested in the proceedings. The discussion of the paragraph in the State School Report in reference to Home Studies was especially lively.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.—A short extra session of the State Normal School will open on May 1st, and close June 15th. None but teachers will be admitted. Tuition will be free; boarding will cost *about* \$4 a week. A limited number of ladies can obtain board at \$3 a week, if application is made at once.

The course will include 20 lectures on the methods of Teaching; 10 lectures on methods of organizing and governing schools; and 20 lessons each on Geometry, Physiology and Book-keeping. Classes will also be formed in Reading, Arithmetic and other subjects, if desired. All students will be required to attend the *Lectures*; the other lessons will be optional. A course of private study will be arranged, extending through several years, preparatory to an examination for Diplomas at the close.

BOOK NOTICES.

THE SOUTHERN STUDENT'S HAND-BOOK OF SELECTIONS for Reading and Oratory, by John G. James, Superintendent of the Texas Military Institute. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 407 pp. Price \$1.25.

The selections are taken exclusively from Southern writers and speakers. They are interesting, varied and characteristic; and well adapted to declamation. The value of the volume as a school-book is increased by the brief biographical notices given of the several authors from whose works the extracts are made.

THE AMATEUR'S HAND-BOOK OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION for the Workshop and the Laboratory, containing clear and full directions for Browning, Lacquering, Polishing Metal, Staining and Polishing Wood, Soldering, Brazing, Working Steel, Tempering Tools, Case-hardening, Cutting and Working Glass, Varnishing, Silvering, Gilding, Preparing Skins, Waterproofing, Making Alloys, Cements, Glues, &c., &c. Price 10 cents. New York: The Industrial Publication Company.

A good ten cents' worth.

THE FRENCH STUDENT'S ASSISTANT; or, Five Minutes in the Class-room. By H. M. Monsanto. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

The special object of this book is to deal with those "minor points and elementary rules to which less attention has been paid, on account of their supposed unimportance and facility of acquirement."

A NORMAL WORD-BOOK; or, Studies in Spelling, Defining, Word Analysis and Synonyms. For use in High Schools, Normal Schools, and the highest grade in Grammar Schools. By John Swett, Principal of Girls' High School, San Francisco. 166 pp. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

A practical book, by a practical teacher.

THE JOURNAL OF SPECULATIVE PHILOSOPHY for April, 1879, opens with a translation of Hegel's chapter on "Romantic Art," as found in the second part of his "*Æsthetics*." In this chapter he discusses (a) The Religious Circle of Romantic Art, (1) The History of Redemption through Christ, (2) Religious Love, (3) The Spirit of the Church, showing how these themes have been treated in art, and their significance. Mr. D'Arcy continues his translation of Von Hartmann's essay on the true and false in Darwinism,—this time giving us the remainder of the strictures on the theory of heterogeneous generation and the theory of transmutation. Professor John Watson (of Queen's University, at Kingston, Ontario,) discusses the question of the theory which makes force the ultimate principle of the world. In a former article he had considered the theory which made matter the ultimate principle. The first half of Hegel's essay on the life and philosophy of Jacob Boehm, is translated by Edwin D. Mead, (at present residing in Leipsic). It is one of the most interesting parts of Hegel's "*History of Philosophy*." Mrs. Morgan translates the ninth chapter of Schelling's lectures on the Method of University study, in which he discusses the study of Theology. Two-thirds of this work of Schelling have now been given in the JOURNAL OF SPECULATIVE PHILOSOPHY. In Answer to an article contained in the January number of this journal, Mr. J. E. Cabot makes some strictures on Dr. Wm. James's ideas of the cognition of Space. Mr. Cabot holds that Space is the first appearance of the category of quantity in the *feeling* (not yet in the discursive thinking). The first part of Miss Brackett's paraphrase of "Rosenkranz's Pedagogics" is completed, with an analysis and Commentary. In the "Notes and Discussions" there is a reply to Dr. J. H. Stirling's article on "Kant and Schopenhauer," published in the January number, so far as that article attacked the position of Professor Caird, of Glasgow, as taken in his recent work on Kant. It is Professor Caird himself who replies, and he exhibits some feeling at the uncalled-for roughness of Dr. Stirling. His vindication is complete, however. Notwithstanding, we shall be surprised if Dr. Stirling does not return to the charge in the next number. Among the "Book Notices" we see a commendation of "Elmendorf's Outlines of the History of Philosophy."

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THE WORK OF THE SCHOOL-ROOM SYSTEM-
ATIZED.

[Read before the Teachers' Association of Baltimore County, and printed
at their request.]

It was the custom of the ancients, when entering upon any discussion, to ask themselves, "*Cur, quo modo, quibus rebus?*" (To what purpose, how and by what means?) Knowing no better way of solving the task allotted to me, I shall follow this approved rule by attempting to point out the need of systems in general, the great purpose to be achieved by a good educational system, and, finally, the factors essential to bring about the desired result.

The necessity of working systematically toward any purpose, beneficial or otherwise, is equally evident to the good and bad. All classes of society feel the indispensableness of operating under a good system. Man in his primitive state knew nothing of system, and, in consequence, accomplished little, advanced slowly. Nine years of unsuccessful hostilities on the part of the Greeks against Troy, in spite of the valor of Achilles, the shrewdness of Ulysses, the calm deliberation of Ajax, were the direct causes of the first systematical warfare on the record of history. Necessity, the best instructor

of mankind, taught them—teaches us the need of systematizing. Experience has confirmed it, and thus it has become a self-evident truth, that any undertaking will be helped onward by a judicious and wise system. Now, then, if this is an empirical truth, logic forces us to admit that this beneficial result cannot be attained by an unwise, injudicious and slovenly system; yea, that more harm may be done by it than if no system had been erected. The wrong treatment is, undoubtedly, more detrimental to our welfare than if nature and natural inclinations had been adopted as the only guide. Hence the necessity of distinguishing clearly between the two. We are not so senseless as to commence the study of Mathematics with Calculus, or Greek with Demosthenes, but we know that, gradually and systematically, we must advance from the lower to the higher degrees. No one, in my remembrance, shows more strikingly the importance of a good system than the noble teacher—martyr of Athens. In his *Memorabilia* of Socrates, Xenophon records the following words, flowing from the lips of that great and wise man: “What is the use of stones and tiles, or timbers and bricks, disorderly thrown together? None! But if you arrange them in order, the stones and bricks below, wood and tiles above, a good and noble structure may be reared!” In this practical illustration, the advantages of order and system are so clearly pointed out as to need no further comment.

The purpose of a public school system is not to instruct scholars in an hundred beautiful things, such as French, German, Latin, Greek, Algebra, Geometry, Chemistry, etc. The rough hand of compulsion tears away from our school-houses by far the largest part of our pupils at fourteen or fifteen years of age. Happy the scholar who will go to his trade, or other occupation, with such habits of mind as will enable him to use his faculties to advantage, and such a training in his mother tongue as to make it for him an instrument ready for use in acquiring and communicating knowledge! “*Non multa, sed multum*,” or in plain English, “Teach well

and thoroughly one thing at a time, and don't skim over the surface of an hundred," is an old, a very old maxim, but deserves to be written with golden letters upon the walls of every school-house, or better be engraved in the heart of every teacher and scholar alike, especially at a time when, with a few exceptions, one institution of learning tries to outstrip the other in superficial teaching. In England and Germany superficiality is branded by calling it "Americanizing." The excellent system of the Johns Hopkins' University of this city is the result of the growing dissatisfaction with the achievements of our collegiate courses. I trust it will always remain true to its purpose, and be the harbinger of future thoroughness in all the higher schools of learning in this country. Our public school system, fortunately, makes the most ample provisions for a thorough study of the English branches, and I am honestly convinced that a boy of fourteen or fifteen years, thoroughly instructed in all the branches taught there, can be prepared better and to greater advantage for entering Johns Hopkins' than a college graduate trained under a diffusive, slovenly, superficial and unwisely ambitious system. From the rich collection of my sorrowful experience in that direction, allow me to select but one. In the first Latin salutatory which I had the sad duty to correct, I found used for the English word "that" invariably "*ut*"—no matter whether the "that" was intended conjunctively, demonstratively or relatively. Would not a sound knowledge of only the elements of English grammar have been preferable to such a smattering of Latin? Let us, therefore, to use the figure of Socrates again, not create a chaos of knowledge, but build an orderly and systematical structure. And if we cannot add the embellishment of the so-called fine arts, or modern languages, let the building possess the first requirements—soundness and usefulness. If this aim is eagerly sought for by the teacher, the accomplishment—at least, to some degree—will not be found to be unattainable; and this principle of "*Non multa, sed multum*" once permeating the being of the

teacher, will lighten the laborious duty. He will have an aim, toward which he must move with a firm step, allowing no obstacles, no difficulties, to cause any deviation. The daily experience of himself, and a ready appropriation of that of others, will soon develop in him the different factors requisite for arriving safely at the goal, and for gaining happiness and satisfaction to himself, as well as storing the minds of his scholars with a sound, efficient knowledge. However rugged the path may be, a glorious compensation is still awaiting the true teacher—the consciousness of having done his duty well, and the radiant faces of his scholars expressing the satisfaction they feel at their real advancement, and at the complete mastery of each obstacle which seemed to debar their onward course; for, in the language of another, “There is no sensation more pleasurable to the mind than the feeling of having fully understood some new truth or principle.”

Coming now to speak about the factors necessary for obtaining the result sought, I shall mention only those which, in my opinion, seem to be paramount; the time granted for this essay, and still more your experience, saves me from reiterating what so often has been said and written.

A little girl comes to her mother, saying: “Mamma, what shall I do now?” “Oh! do most anything, darling,” replies the mother. “Well, what anything, mamma?” “Now, child, see here, I am too busy, go and do anything at all!” “Well, *what*, mamma?”

Here is a great lesson the child teaches us. Children do not want to have *anything* to do, but *something*. Consequently, we ought to keep the children permanently engaged; by no means overtax their faculties; but invent, ingeniously, one day this, another that, in order to keep the scholars busy. The whole secret of the success of the Kindergarden lies mostly in the right appreciation for, and attendance to, this particular want. As far as theory is concerned, perhaps we all shall accede to this, but to practice it, we may find it impossible, especially in a large and crowded school-room. My

own experience forces me to acknowledge my frequent shortcomings. Knowing, however, the great need of keeping a child's mind actively engaged, we certainly should make every endeavor for its accomplishment, and do of it as much as possible; this is all that justice, conscience and duty can demand.

Memory and reason (or thinking) are two distinct qualities of the human mind. A sharp thinker possesses, in most cases, a great power of memory, but a good memorizer is not always a sharp thinker. Memory, methinks, can be compared to wax, on which imprints are easily formed, while soft. Would that all these first impressions were correct! for they are not easily erased after the process of hardening. With an increase of our reasoning faculties, there occurs a decrease of those of our memory. How much more difficult memorizing is to our present minds than at the time when we were children, you and I have, equally well, experienced in the attempt of committing—say, the irregular verbs of a new language! In his autobiography, Stuart Mills, the great scholar and logician, informs us of how early he began to memorize Greek. He tells us, if I am not mistaken, his ability of declining Greek nouns at the tender age of four. But all this evinces no particular force of mind or strength of memory, for our children of three or four years learn songs and hymns by heart, the meaning of which is as much Greek to them as *timé*, *timés*, to Stuart Mills. But it *does* prove the great power of a child's memorizing, however young; hence the advisableness of inducing children to commit to memory early that of which we are positively convinced must be learned by heart, such as multiplication tables, geography and dates in history. But I should be grieved beyond consolation if you should think me advocating a senseless committing without any understanding of the object in question. If we are honest, we shall admit the horror and pain *we* experienced by committing something of which we had no clear conception, or no idea at all. In a declamation of a girl, memory forsakes her at some hyperbole which she did not understand; a boy in his virgin speech

breaks down in a sentence he stole—*his* mind was foreign to that sentiment—hence memory failed. Then, it is our imperative duty to use all our efforts, skill, persuasion and lungs to make a child perfectly understand the thing to be committed. It is not only our duty, but a sinning against it is a mental brutality, an inhumanity, against which more severe laws ought to be enacted than those to remedy the cruelty to animals. But even this is insufficient. Mere memorizing and the bare possession of knowledge, without the faculty of ever-ready application, can be termed only a skeletonized knowledge. The Fourth Grade recites "caution" III or IV in Grammar—"Never use the objective case of pronouns as subjects of the sentence." The class looks disdainfully at us, if we should express any doubt as to their perfect understanding of this caution. They say, though wrongly, every subject must be in the nominative case, therefore, etc. Now, the inexperienced teacher may feel as if this was the end of his work. The experienced one will only smile and await the development. He does not need to wait very long, for at recess a pleasantly-smiling youngster of ten or twelve years, a member of that class, comes up and asks politely, "Can me and him go after a bucket of water?" How many tens of times do we all violate a simple rule we well understand! Application of knowledge and knowledge itself are, therefore, two very distinct things, requiring different treatment. Knowledge must be gathered first, and following it, the teacher must, by constant and persistent efforts, train the child to carry into effect what he has learned; for, without it, all knowledge is dead, and will not accomplish any good school system—that is, to send the pupil into the struggle of life with such habits of mind as will enable him to use his faculties to advantage. Having now pointed out the need, purpose, and some very essential factors requisite for effectually systematizing the work of the school-room, I can pass in a few words the "how" to accomplish this end. As we cannot be taught how to think, we cannot be taught exactly how to

teach. One possesses more natural endowments of expressing himself clearly and comprehensively than another ; one will speak earnestly and forcibly, the other slowly and lowly ; one will effect discipline in this, another in that way ; one teaches in an eccentric manner, the other in a calm and self-possessed. Thus, we shall instruct differently, since we are more or less subject to our natural temperaments, for which we cannot be made responsible. But if we rightly comprehend the great purpose of an educational system, and endeavor its accomplishment by a careful and close observance of the "*quibus rebus*" (or, "by what means"), we all shall certainly do good and an almost equal amount. But, however important all these means may be, they will avail but little, if not true love for our profession and for our scholars enters as the most important factor of all. The good mechanic loves and cares for his tools, by the means of which he fulfills his avocation. A teacher's tools are not books, but human intellects. As the planets depend on the sun for light, the scholars look to us for wisdom. Let us give them not only the light, but also the warmth of our hearts.—J. E. BAKER.

THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

(CONCLUDED.)

Prof. Tyler, of Massachusetts, who is regarded as a very wise educator, laments the fact that the old system of moral discipline is falling into disuse among American colleges ; and I suppose he is more impressed with the truth of such, when he contemplates some of the disgraceful, senseless, and even criminal acts of the past scholastic year. I feel assured that our public high schools are open to as much moral influence as any schools in the country. The reverend gentleman denounced normal schools also. He thinks them unnecessary and expensive luxuries, and that they are not doing their appropriate work. I believe them to be an *essential part* of the

school system. If our Republic is to be prosperous and happy, we must have good schools, at which to educate our children ; good teachers make good schools, and well qualified teachers cannot be provided without institutions for their education. Teaching is a profession. If it is not, then the wants of America will never be adequately supplied until it is. To say that normal schools are not doing their appropriate work is in my opinion as *unjust* as it is *untrue*. The last year before graduation is spent in the practicing department under the constant supervision and instruction of teachers appointed for the purpose. Tell us ye "Educational Reformers" their "appointed sphere." I regret to see any conflict between public high schools and private institutions. There is certainly no cause for any ; there is a place for both, and I have yet to learn of the high school being the assailant, but if we are *attacked* we will defend ourselves as best we can.

Without claiming too much of your attention, let us for a few moments notice the merits of the public high school and its great usefulness to the people, and we are done. Although the establishment of these schools in the United States is of recent date, yet their good influence has been felt and acknowledged, and has extended itself through the land. By means of them a vast amount of talent and attainment has been secured to the nation, which would otherwise have been forever unknown. This, I regard as a great blessing, especially to a country like ours, where every kind of talent is in such great demand, and has such liberty to expand itself in every desired direction. Are not our social and industrial interests advanced by the discovery and development of this talent ?

Again, high schools are needed to complete the system of public education ; the good effects they have upon the elementary schools are alone worth all they cost, for experience has proved that elementary schools flourish most when provision for higher education is most ample, and the reason why the elementary schools of Germany are the best in the world is that higher education is accessible to all classes. An-

other fact about high schools is: They are *cheap schools*; some of our opponents say they are too expensive. I cannot understand this, when they furnish higher education for about *one third* of the cost at which private schools provide *elementary* instruction. They are adopting the best methods of instruction, are arranging sound and practical courses of study, and have a due regard to the physical and moral discipline of their pupils. They bring the best opportunity of education to the door of every American child, and scatter abroad in their localities a wider intelligence, and all the happy results of higher education. They say to the poorest child, you are rich in this one endowment before which external possessions grow dim. We place in your hands the key of knowledge, we give you the opportunity to ascend as high as you may. We leave your religious convictions, with which we dare not interfere, to your chosen guides; here is the intellectual path, it is free to you, and when we consider the great consequences that grow out of this, I think the public high school becomes more splendid. Our hearts beat with admiration and gratitude—we are resolved that it, at all events, *MUST stand* as a noble symbol of a true Republic—"a sign and an instrument of a great people, having a great power."

Some of our educators think High Schools interfere with and injure colleges. I claim they *BENEFIT* colleges, the reasons for which I think are apparent. In my opinion it would be a much better advertisement for colleges when they go to strange towns to hold their reunions, to speak in favor of high schools than against them. With one more thought we close. Some of our opponents have gone a *little too far*; they have inferred that public education is intended for *THE POOR*, and hence primary instruction should be sufficient for them. I know a gentleman in this State, the principal of a female seminary, and a *ministér* also, who is afraid that if the masses are educated we will have no one to do menial service. "Alas for the rarity of Christian charity under the sun!" Who is born to do menial service? Will you tell me? Shame upon the narrow notion

that there is to be an education for the poor as such. It is unworthy of a freeman. It is unworthy of a *man*. I am sorry that a Maryland educator would give expression to such a thought. Does not the sunlight of heaven come down in golden flood alike upon the poor man's cottage and the rich man's palace? Has God provided for the poor a rougher earth or a paler sky? Has not the mechanic's child as keen a sense of all the beauty of luxuriant nature as the proud, pale son of a millionaire, or is it upon the mind that the Almighty has branded the impress of meaner birth, so that the poor man's child knows his lot is to crawl at the foot of the educational ladder, and not to climb it? No! no! it is not thus. Mind is immortal. Mind is *imperial*. It bears no mark of rich or poor, of high or low. It asks but freedom. Give it culture, for culture is freedom. It needs but light; give it intelligence, for intelligence is light. The shackles of poverty cannot bind it. Difficulties only increase its power. If we search the record of renown we find it is not to colleges alone that we are to look for great or good men. Our Savior selected his followers from a fishing boat, and many men have reached the very pinnacle of human glory by the aid of institutions far more humble than that we have been contemplating. The poor tallow-chandler's son, who sits up all night to read a book which an apprentice lends him, shall stand and treat with kings, shall add new provinces to the domain of science, shall bind the lightning with a hempen cord and bring it harmless from the clouds. The poor fifer's boy, in the band of Hanoverian foot-guards, with the eye of a philosopher, shall search out and add another world to the solar system, and become a member of all the scientific societies of Europe and America. The common school system is common, not as an *inferior*; not as a means of education for the poor man's child, but as the light and air are common. It is the public fountain at which every youthful mind may drink and be refreshed and strengthened for its career of usefulness and glory.

THE reward of a thing well done is to have done it.

SUGGESTIONS TO PRIMARY TEACHERS.

Children must be busy about something. Their school hours should be given to useful work, or to equally useful recreation. They should be led to see that their occupations serve some useful purpose beyond keeping them out of mischief, or else the whole nature of the child will rebel against the work.

A school of First Grade pupils only should be held in one class and taught as a unit, until they have some idea of slate work.

General preparatory lessons in language, reading, spelling, and numbers, at the least, should alternate, interspersed plentifully with rest and recreation, and "pencilship" should form an important part of every exercise. In a school of more than one grade older pupils may be taught to assist the little ones in learning the use of the pencil.

But the time soon comes when the school must be divided into classes. How shall we keep one division quietly busy, while the other is receiving instruction?

Base the work to be done upon your course of study. Let the first work be so simple that no child need fail to do it.

NUMBERS.—Write on the blackboard the figure *one*, with one cross, one ring, one dot, thus: 1, X, O. Direct the child to copy; draw a horizontal line beneath and repeat, trying to make each line better than the last. For the next lesson, figure *two*, with two crosses, etc.; then both figures; then three, and so on. When he can copy correctly, give the figures only, and let him add crosses; then giving crosses, omit figures, for him to supply; then reproduce entirely from memory. As soon as the forms and values of a few figures are mastered, give examples to be solved with objects, and carefully written out with the proper sign. For cheap, convenient, and noiseless objects, gather old postal cards and cut into narrow strips.

SPELLING.—Write (not print) the lesson on the board for the child to copy. If it is only done at first in hieroglyphics,

beyond your power to translate, let it be in neat columns. Encourage perseverance and painstaking. Insist upon a cross for every *t* and a dot for every *i*. The child will decide where to put them, though you may not be able to do so. Give misspelled words to be copied a given number of times, and see that they are not miscopied.

READING.—Let all reading lessons be copied in script from the board. Let all capital letters and punctuation marks be correctly placed upon the board and carefully copied. These things take time, which is enough for our present purpose.

The very youngest pupil who uses a book should learn to translate print into script. As this is *slow* work, you will find it useful. Suppose he has Harvey's Reader. First Lesson :

"The cat ran, The rat ran, The rat ran at the cat."

Print *like*—not somewhat like—the letters in the book.

a, c, e, h, n, r, T, t,
with the script letter beneath each one. Let the child find the first letter (T) in his book; the corresponding letter on the board; the script beneath; write the latter and proceed to the next letter in the book. Explain that the letters near each other in the book are to be joined on the slate. For the next lesson add to those on the board

b, d, H, m, s,

keeping the alphabetic order and placing capital and small letters side by side.

For another exercise (valuable for other purposes than the one in hand), let the child hunt out and write all the words he cannot name in his lesson—and sometimes, instead, all the words (in columns) that he does know.

LANGUAGE.—Write sentences with blanks for the child to fill. Omit the verb first until he can supply the word readily, thus: "The boy —"; then the noun, "The — swims"; then the predicate adjective, etc.

Write sentences without capitals or punctuation, to be copied and corrected; also, sometimes, with misplaced capitals and marks. (Erase the incorrect form as soon as it has served its purpose.)

Give a model from which the child is to write what he sees in the school-room. Let the model be the simplest possible, at first: "I see a ——."

Tell him to notice what he can at recess, and write from the model "I saw ——." Gradually enlarge his sphere of observation and expand his model. You object that he cannot spell? Let him get some one at home, or an older pupil, to write for him a list of the words he wants and let him copy from the paper he brings. Cut pictures from Sunday-school papers for him to describe in the same way, *i. e.*, to tell what he sees. Any picture will do, but something fresh is better.

FORM.—Give the children slips of postal cards (before mentioned) to build gates, fences, houses, squares, triangles, and simple designs, and let them make drawings of the forms thus constructed. Assign them something definite to make and draw, *e. g.*, all the forms they can think of with two slips, three, etc. Two or three pairs of old scissors—the children will bring them—and a newspaper will quiet as many restless ones. He who has the privilege of scissors, must keep *all* the bits together, and dispose of them properly.

COLOR.—Have one or more boxes with bright bits of calico, paper, ribbon, etc., to be assorted. Let the colors be decided—not blue, green, and the like.

Some day when your "nerves are all unstrung" and you "feel as if you would fly to pieces;" when pencils fall, and slates clatter, give a slip from a child's paper (or any newspaper) to each child, with a pin to put through all the words he knows—or, all he does not know; or instead of a pin, lead pencils to mark the words. Sometimes let them write the familiar words on their slates from such slips, or with lead pencil and paper. *Anything* for a change. Let some of them go to the blackboard and work occasionally. Give permission now and then to do what they please, provided they do not disturb you nor anyone around them.—MRS. F. W. CASE, in the *Educational Weekly*.

SEND a wise man on an errand and say nothing unto him.

A DIALOGUE ON EDUCATION.

"Now, children, you have told me how many members we have in the Legislature, who presides over each body, how laws are made and how often a United States Senator is elected, and in return I will—"

I had reached this point the other evening when there came a ring at the door bell, and after a minute I discovered that Mr. Old Fogy had decided on another attack. He meant to give me fits this time. He brought along with him two or three school teachers, and they at once walked into my school-room. I did at first have a sign of "State Prison" over the door, so as to make it seem like a regular school-house to the pupils, but as they insisted upon it as a novelty, I removed the sign.

"Well, you have been teaching, I see," observed Mr. Old Fogy.

"Yes; six of these children belong in the neighborhood, and do not attend any regular school."

"We don't exactly agree on the school question you know," said Mr. Old Fogy. "You did rather stump me the other night, but I'd like you to ask some of those teachers a few questions."

"Very well; Mr. Blank, please tell me how many bushels of wheat in a barrel of flour?"

"Why, that isn't a regular question," he replied, as he looked around.

"Isn't it? Your arithmetic says that sixty pounds of wheat make a bushel, and because it does not say how many bushels make a barrel of flour, the farmer who is figuring on his year's supply must be left in ignorance. Here is Charley—only nine years old—he may answer."

"From four and a half to five bushels," the boy replied.

"Now, Mr. Blank, can you name the more prominent stars?"

"I can, sir."

"I thought so, but can you tell me how many spokes there are in the front wheel of a buggy--can any of you?"

"I protest!" cried Mr. Old Fogy, but they didn't answer for all that.

"Well, Mr. Blank, can you translate Latin?"

"I can, sir."

"No doubt of it; but can you tell me how to preserve cider?"

"There you go again!" cried Mr. Old Fogy, but none of them could tell.

"Are you familiar with cube root, Mr. Blank?"

"I am."

"But can you tell me the salary of our Governor?"

None of them could.

"Try some of the ladies," suggested Mr. Old Fogy, after a few more questions.

"All right. Miss Blank, are you good in algebra?"

"I think so."

"And can you tell me how many yards of cloth to buy for a pair of pillow slips?"

"Why, no."

"Do you know what will take stains out of a table-cloth or grease spots out of a carpet?"

"No, sir."

"Can you direct a cook to make pie-crust or mix biscuit or bread?"

"No, sir."

"Do you know the average length of a lace curtain?"

"No, sir."

"Can you mix a mustard plaster, tell me a ready antidote for poison, suggest a family remedy for a cold or sore throat, tell me how many yards in a bunch of dress braid, the number of yards of ticking to make a bed-tick, a way to remove paint from windows, or how to make gruel for the sick?"

"No, sir."

"What are you driving at?" indignantly demanded Mr. Old Fogy.

"I'll let my class go and tell you. Let me first remark

that I haven't asked a question which these children here can't answer. This little girl will promptly answer everything I have asked Miss Blank, and yet she is not ten years old. A month ago I told her that alum and brown sugar would relieve croup. A week ago at dead of night, roused from sleep by her parents and the wails of her sick brother, she prepared the remedy while her father was after the doctor and her mother was excited and helpless, and in half an hour the croup was gone. You ask what am I driving at? Women are called helpless, and we do not look to see them have presence of mind. Why are they so? Simply because they may know algebra by heart and yet not know what is an antidote for almost every poison. They learn astronomy, and yet don't know what is good for a burn or how to stop the nose bleed. They know all about botany, and yet cannot tell what to do for a person who has fainted away."

"But I'm not a housekeeper," protested Miss Blank.

"No; well, every woman looks forward to marriage. They were born to it. Every female expects to marry rich, but not one in five hundred can so marry as to throw the entire responsibility of her house on hired help. Six out of ten may have a servant, but unless the mistress knows how things should go, what can be expected of the girl? While the lady sits in the parlor and realizes that she can draw, play the piano, and read French, the 'help' breaks, smashes and throws away, and the family are soon looking for a cheaper house. Miss Blank here may marry and never lift a hand, but if she knew every duty—if she knew remedies and receipts—wouldn't she have more self-reliance and be better prepared for her responsibilities?"

"Can you name one married lady in Detroit who makes use of algebra? Can you name one who is ever inconvenienced for the want of geometry? Do you know of one who wouldn't trade off her Latin for a cure for corns?"

Mr. Old Foggy said he thought it looked as if we would have a snow storm.

"Then take the other side. We do not teach our boys to be observing and then we turn around and call them heedless. We pass the things of every-day life and let them grasp at the theoretical. Thus they become helpless. They can name the planets, but they cannot give the length and width of a brick. They can name every ancient philosopher, but they can't put up the stove-pipe. They can figure in cube root, but they can't tell all-wool cloth from half-cotton. We let them go to school for years, are proud to find that they know so much, and then discover that they can't tell why hickory wood will burn longer than pine, and we hear somebody say of them, 'He has a fine education, but no horse sense.'"

Mr. Old Foggy suggested that it was getting late.

"Now, then, some of you tell me about a business man who has made his money through a classical education. Tell me one lawyer who wins by flowery speeches, and I'll name a dozen who wins by arguments which even boys can digest. Name a merchant who buys at random, as we educate children, and I will name the day of his failure. Name one who can tell you how to saw out a boot-jack, build an ice-box, putty in a pane of glass, mix paint or hang a gate, and I'll show you that he is doing a safe business, dictated by observation and common sense. Last year, a gentleman with a fine collegiate education opened a grocery store on a certain street in this city, asking no advice as to location, and making no observations of the movements of the public. He had got nicely opened, when a bootblack called in one day and bluntly said :

"Gimme a cent's worth of peanuts!"

"Peanuts! Boy, I don't keep a peanut stand!" was the indignant reply.

"You won't keep even a peanut stand here two months from now!" chuckled the lad, as he lounged out.

In five weeks there was a failure, and the grocer was \$3,000 cash out of pocket in seven weeks' time. The observing boy knew that the store was too far down town, because he had

watched the movements of the people who bought at retail. The grocer had been at Yale College, and he didn't deem it necessary to know a lamp from a salt barrel in order to establish a trade.

The other day, a lady, who can speak several languages, and who had graduated with high honors at Vassar, wanted some mince pies made and put away for New Year's. Neither of her servant girls knew how to make them, and the lady went out among her neighbors. She tried to remember what they told her, but her pies were made without sugar or salt and with only one crust. When told that "they tasted like basswood chips," she burst into tears and sobbed out:

"They educated me to be an idiot instead of a woman!"—*Detroit Free Press.*

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.*

In the discussion of this measure (as indeed of all proposed legislation) two leading inquiries are suggested—What *may* we do, and what *ought* we to do? As a State, What our *rights* and what our *duties*, relative to the important subject of popular education? *Compulsion*, I know, has an ugly sound to an American ear. It is claimed by some that to enact a law of this nature would be an unjust limitation of parental authority—an unwarranted interference with freedom of conscience, and consequently repugnant to the spirit and genius of the principles on which our government is founded. Such an objection, Mr. Speaker, if based on tenable ground, would militate against all law; for every law—to a greater or less

*A bill is now (March 26th), before the Legislature of Rhode Island, to compel all children between certain ages to go to school. The speech of Mr. Sherman, from which our article is only an extract, gives a clear and forcible presentation of the argument in favor of the principle of compulsion. The weakness of all compulsory laws is clearly pointed out in the last paragraph. We regret that we are ignorant of the details of the proposed measure—EDS.

extent—imposes restraint, or defines a positive duty. The father is compelled by law to feed and clothe his child, and if from any cause he fails so to do, the State takes the matter into her own hands. Should not the parent be required to provide for the mind as well as the body of his child? No one disputes that the education of our youth is a public benefit. The *right* of the State to impose and collect a tax to provide means for the elementary education of every child is universally admitted. The *right* of the State to insist that every child receive the benefit of such instruction is, in my opinion, equally apparent. The latter prerogative is an inevitable corollary of the former. A large proportion of the tax-paying population willingly contributes, as required by law, to the educational fund, so a large majority of those for whom instruction is provided voluntarily come within its influence. We allow no exception in the one class; we should not in the other. The power which has the right to compel the selfish and penurious to pay for education, has the right to insist that the ignorant receive it. Passing from the question of the abstract *right* of our State to enact such a law, we come to the second inquiry, What is her duty? “Self protection is a fundamental law of nature,” and is as applicable to States as to individuals. If it can be shown conclusively that the practical operation of this law will very materially diminish crime and pauperism, the two greatest and most expensive evils with which society is to-day called to contend, a point will have been made in favor of its passage.

What relation does illiteracy bear to crime? We will examine the prison reports for 1872, from twelve different States. These statistics include full returns from seven State prisons, thirty penitentiaries and a large number of jails and work-houses. Of the 46,600 inmates confined in these penal institutions during the year last named, in New York and Pennsylvania 33 per cent. were illiterates; in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin 46 per cent. were illiterates; in Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas and California 31 per cent. were

illiterates; in Massachusetts $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. were illiterates. The same reports inform us that of the remaining criminals, a very large proportion are practically illiterate, their education being exceedingly meagre and deficient. Of the 160 persons sentenced to the Massachusetts State prison during that year, only five had received a common school education. Let us now apply the test. If the proportion of illiterate criminals to the whole number of criminals shall be found to be greatly in excess of the proportion of the illiterate population to the whole population, then the inference is inevitable—that ignorance is a prolific cause of crime. The national census of 1870 furnishes the desired data. From it we find the ratio of illiterate population to total population to be as follows:

In New York and Pennsylvania.....	4	per cent.
In Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin....	$3\frac{1}{2}$	"
In Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas and California	3	"
In Massachusetts	6 7-10	"

In other words, the proportion of illiterate criminals is in States first named $8\frac{1}{4}$ times as great as the proportion of illiterate people.

In States second named, $13\frac{1}{7}$ times as great as the proportion of illiterate people.

In States third named, $10\frac{1}{3}$ times as great as the proportion of illiterate people.

In Massachusetts, 5 times as great as the proportion of illiterate people.

Do not these figures furnish indisputable proof of the intimate relationship existing between ignorance and crime? Are the respective States not responsible, to a certain extent, for the criminals developed within their borders?

Quetelet, an eminent European statistician, has asserted that "Society *prepares* the crime which the criminal commits." To the extent, that by its negative influence it allows the existence of so powerful an incentive to crime—society must plead guilty to this charge. To diminish crime, a State should adopt *preventive* as well as *punitive* measures.

"Cut off the *causes* and *effects* will cease."

No less suggestive and significant are the facts which have been ascertained relative to pauperism. From a recently published report of Dr. E. D. Mansfield, who has made an extensive investigation in this direction, the following epitome of results is obtained. The report includes sixteen of the Northern and Western States of our country, and embraces returns from 276 pauper institutions. Of the 12,159 inmates of these asylums, 60 per cent. were totally ignorant. Comparing these returns with the United States census of 1870, we find that the average proportion of paupers in the several States, is *sixteen* times as great from the illiterates as from those of common education. From the same source we learn the astounding fact that 13 per cent. of all illiterates become paupers. By a recently prepared map of our own country, showing the distribution of wealth and illiteracy, it appears that those sections having the *maximum* per capita of wealth exactly correspond with those showing the *minimum* of ignorance. Is it not patent to all that the twin sisters, crime and poverty, are the giant evils of the present age, and that education is a powerful force which, as a State, we should apply to check their further development?

A few opinions of eminent men of our own and other times, in this and foreign countries, may have some weight in determining our action on this important subject. Compulsory education is not a modern innovation. It is of ancient and honorable origin. Lycurgus, the Spartan legislator, twenty-seven hundred years ago, required by law that the State take the entire control of the education of all male children after attaining the seventh year.

Two hundred years later, Solon, the Athenian law-giver, exacted under severe penalty, that every citizen should teach his son to read and to swim; he was also required to prepare him for some occupation, and failing to do this, the son was not obliged to support the father in his old age. Subsequently, Plato, in his laws, insisted that "Masters should be provided to teach every one, not only the youth who comes to school

because his father wishes it, but him too, who because his father does not wish, neglects his education * * * * since they belong rather to the State than their parents." Martin Luther declared his conviction that it was the "duty of the State authorities to compel their subjects to send their children to school," and aided by Melancthon in 1528, established a system of graded schools in Germany. Guizot, the statesman and historian, during the last few years of his life, earnestly advocated for France that compulsory system of education which forty years before, as Minister of Public Instruction, he had successfully opposed. The first educational ordinance in Massachusetts, passed in 1642, enjoined the select men of every town to see "that their brethren and neighbors teach their children and apprentices, by themselves or others, so much learning as may enable them to read the English tongue and the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein."

Eight years subsequent to that date Connecticut enacted a similar law.

John Adams in his work on Government declares that "the instruction of the people in every kind of knowledge that can be of use to them in the practice of their duties as men and citizens, ought to be the care of the public," and that "schools for the education of *all* should be maintained at the public expense."

James Madison asserted that "a popular government without popular information, or the means of acquiring it, is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps to both," that "Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which *knowledge* gives."

Daniel Webster in 1851 said: "In my opinion, the instruction communicated in the free schools of New England has a direct effect for good on the morals of youth. It represses vicious inclinations, it inspires love of character, and it awakens honorable aspirations. In short, I have no conception of any

manner in which the popular republican institutions under which we live could possibly be preserved, if early education were not freely furnished to *all*, by public law, in such forms that *all* shall avail themselves of it." President McCosh, of Princeton College, says: "All Americans feel that if their republican institutions are to continue and prosper, they must have an education as *universal* as the suffrage." Similar testimony from hundreds of eminent educators and statesmen might be cited if necessary. At the present time a law for compulsory education in some form exists in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway and England. In our own country in Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Nevada, Texas and California. Wherever it has been earnestly enforced the best results have followed.

In closing, Mr. Speaker, your committee are aware that the successful operation of this law, if passed, will depend entirely on the energy and enthusiasm which the local authorities and School Committees of the several towns, backed by public sentiment, shall bring to its execution. We believe, however, that the time has come when the community, partially aroused to a consciousness of the existing and impending evils of ignorance, will give its grateful approval to this measure. Patient argument, persuasion, and conciliation should, and doubtless will be, the leading influences brought to bear in its enforcement. The penal consequence of its violation is designed for the persistently incorrigible, and should be appealed to only as a *dernier resort*.

"POUR in knowledge gently." Plato, one of the wisest men of ancient Greece, observed that the minds of children are like bottles with very narrow mouths. If you attempt to fill them too rapidly, much knowledge is wasted and little received, whereas with a small stream they are easily filled. Those who would make prodigies of young children act as wisely as if they would pour a pail of water into a pint measure.

FIRST LESSONS IN BOTANY.

X.—*Strawberries.*

T.—I know of no flower blooming this month which will be more interesting for us to study than that of the strawberry. It is a representative of a very large and important family, for among its kindred may be mentioned peaches, apples, pears, plums, cherries, apricots, quinces, blackberries, raspberries, mulberries, and all of the roses. Some of the main characteristics of the strawberry plant and flower will apply to those of any member of the family. I have here some of the flowers and fruit, let us examine them.

The flower, like that of the hepatica, is borne on a scape; for the stem is *subterranean*—that is, underground. But it differs from it in having reddish, leafless branches, called *stolons*, running from it with buds on the ends, which, when they come in contact with the ground, after having grown to be about a foot in length, take root and a new plant is formed. I have chosen a wild strawberry plant, as it is not so apt to be modified by cultivation. Pull off one of the leaves by stripping it down as far as you can, and describe it.

P.—It has two wings attached to the lower end of the peduncle.

T.—These wings, as you call them, are stipules; but in this case they grow fast of the petiole, and are said to be *adnate*. What else can you say about the leaf?

P.—It is compound, and made up of three leaflets, each with its margin toothed like a saw.

T.—Yes; the margins are *serrate*, or toothed, and notice that the teeth all point towards the apex. Describe the peduncle.

P.—The peduncle is a scape, and branches irregularly, forming a cluster.

T.—Which of the flowers bloomed first, the outer or inner ones? . •

P.—The one which was at the end of the peduncle before it began to branch.

T.—When the central flower of a cluster blooms first, and then the others bloom in succession, outwards, the method of inflorescence is called *centrifugal*. Now, let us analyze the flower. How many sepals has it?

P.—There are ten sepals, arranged in two rows.

T.—Botanists say that five of these are sepals, and the five in the outer row are bracts, which alternate with the sepals. How many petals are there in this flower?

P.—There are five petals.

T.—And where are they attached?

P.—They are attached to the inside of the calyx.

T.—How many stamens, and where are they attached?

P.—There are twenty-five in this, and they are attached to the sepals, just below where the petals are attached.

T.—When stamens are attached to the calyx around the pistil, they are said to be perigynous (from a Greek word meaning "Around the pistil"). Now, examine the central part of the flower. How many pistils are there, and what is their shape?

P.—There is a green mass in the centre with the styles and stigmas of pistils all over it.

T.—Cut this green mass down through the centre and see if, with the aid of your microscope, you cannot find some ovaries at the lower ends of these styles.

P.—There are some little green bag-like bodies in between them, but the styles must have dropped off if they are ovaries.

T.—Take hold of one of these styles with a pair of tweezers, or, perhaps, push it off with a pin, and examine it.

P.—Oh! I see. The styles are attached to the sides of those little bag-shaped ovaries.

T.—Then, there are a great many pistils. But what is the rest of this central mass?

P.—It must be the receptacle, for the pistils are attached to it.

T.—Yes ; this is the receptacle, and after the floral organs fall off, this receptacle enlarges and forms a pulpy mass with the seeds imbedded in it, and this is the strawberry. Cut this one in two, and see if we are right.

P.—Yes ; the inside is all white, and the seeds are near the surface in the red part.

T.—In the wild strawberries the receptacle is small, but by cultivation it becomes very large. The botanical name of this is *Fragaria Virginiana* (the first word, meaning “Fragrant,” refers to the fruit, and the second, to the State in which it was first found).

LOCAL GEOGRAPHY.

Map-drawing cannot be too highly recommended as an important aid in the study of local geography. The effort that the pupil expends in striving to reproduce the map helps to fix it firmly in his memory, because, in order to transfer it to paper, he is obliged to look carefully and examine closely. This is most important. The map should be photographed, as it were in the mind. If you succeed in doing this, your pupils will be independent of map or book. Create in your pupils a desire to have their maps drawn as neatly and correctly as possible. By correctness I do not mean that every indentation and little curve should be reproduced, but a good, firm outline, so that anyone looking at it will know what it is intended to represent. In beginning the study of a continent, for instance, Asia, for the first lesson require a map of Asia. Do not expect too correct an outline the first effort. Be satisfied when the general outline is good. If a pupil has tried and failed, do not censure, but encourage and aid him, and keep him at it, until he brings to you a pretty fair representation. As the class takes up each individual country of Asia, require a map of each, as a part of the daily lesson. In this way the shape and outline are much better remembered, and when they bound orally they feel that they know that of

which they are talking. The map is their own. They see it. It is in the mind's eye, and they are not depending on the book. Have your pupils draw from memory. If your class is small, you can send them to the blackboard; if large, the class can use slates.

Suppose the lesson is on Hindostan. Have the children draw on blackboard or slates an outline of Hindostan, the teacher meanwhile watching their work. Then ask questions, as: "What is the shape of this country?" "What waters surround the peninsular part?" "What body of water east?" "South?" "West?" "What island directly south?" "What natural division of land forms the northern boundary?" "What are these mountains called?" "From what country do they separate it?" "What is the principal river in Hindostan?" Draw it on the map, on your slate, and locate Bombay, Calcutta. Or the teacher can call on one member of the class to go to the board and draw, the remainder of the class watching his work and correcting mistakes. The teacher, chalk in hand, may locate the different cities, and as he does so ask the name, and whether it be inland or seaport, and why, and, according to the location, what branches of industry the people would probably follow. I think that as much useful, practical, business knowledge should be learned in geography as possible. If your pupils study geography in this way, it will certainly make them more intelligent and thoughtful. If you wish to review your pupils in the countries of Asia, after having finished it, require a map of Asia. The drawing of the map will freshen their knowledge better than studying it, because they will draw it intelligently. It does not take much time. Your pupils can draw all maps at home, save those you ask them to draw from memory in class. A few minutes will suffice for you to criticise and point out the worst mistakes, and for you to offer such suggestions as you think they need.

It is an utter waste of time, and worse than useless, to keep pupils trying to repeat boundaries and locations from memory.

Let them remember the map, just as they remember a picture, and they will remember the boundaries, because, when the country is mentioned, they will immediately try to think how it looks and where it is, and the map is immediately before them in the mind, and they see the country and its surroundings. In learning the elementary part of mathematical geography, drawing will be found useful. Children may repeat the definitions for parallels, meridians, zones and circles forever, but they will not remember any longer than while repeating. But if you have them draw circles, meridians, zones, parallels, diameters, etc., and make them for themselves, they will know and feel conscious of knowing the difference between a parallel and a meridian, a diameter and a circumference.—*Ex.*

THE VALUE OF CORRECT TIME.

Correct time is a necessity to everyone. As the old philosopher said, "Punctuality is the essence of virtue," but it is an impossible excellence to the person whose watch is wrong. In these days of railroads and railroad-like way of doing business, a man whose time is money to him must attend not only to his hours and minutes, but even to his seconds. To secure the necessary agreement of time-keepers, the town time must somehow be telegraphed, either continuously or at regular intervals, in such a way as to be accessible to all concerned. There are many ways of doing this, nearly all of which depend upon the use of electricity. The simplest method, and one which, perhaps, answers well enough for all purposes of business, is that now practiced in New York. Every day at noon the time is telegraphed from the National Observatory, at Washington, and a so-called "time-ball" is dropped on the top of the Western Union Telegraph building.

The time sent from Washington is not strictly accurate, but sufficiently so to satisfy the general requirements of business.

In England and Scotland the time is regulated at noon each day by the Greenwich Observatory, and is indicated at all the

principal cities by a somewhat similar plan ; but instead of the ball being dropped by hand work, by an ingenious arrangement the astronomical clock is made to perform the service, thereby causing a saving of time that is unavoidably lost by the New York method. But even this approximately correct way of obtaining time is hardly sufficient for all purposes, as the true time is wanted continuously. Probably the time service adopted in Boston exceeds all others in precision and accuracy. The beats of the standard clock at Cambridge are regularly telegraphed to a number of stations throughout the city, great care being taken to keep the standard clock correct by protecting it from all sudden changes of temperature and atmospheric pressure.

Electric clocks are used to some extent, in which the hands are moved by electric impulses telegraphed by a standard clock ; but these are so liable to be seriously affected by atmospheric changes, as to render them untrustworthy.

A system is being widely introduced in England, which consists in setting the hands of a standard clock every hour by the action of the electro-magnet. At the end of each hour a couple of finger-like projections catch for a moment the end of the minute-hand and set it right, whether fast or slow.

A very simple and satisfactory method of controlling tower clocks, which is now in operation at Dartmouth and Princeton colleges, consists in adjusting the rate of the town clock so that, left to itself, it shall gain slightly, and then stopping it, by an electric current sent from the observatory clock at the close of each hour, just long enough to set it right.

In Vienna electricity is not used, but instead, clocks are controlled by a pulse of compressed air, communicated through a series of pipes like gas-mains. It is difficult, however, to see what advantage this plan possesses over those which involve the use of electricity.

Since there are many ways by which clocks can, at a small expense, be made accordant, it seems a pity that there should be such continual disagreements between our public time-keepers as are common to all our American cities.—*The Teacher.*

READING.

Assistant Superintendent Calkins, in the New York school report, says: "In relation to the character of the teaching of reading in the primary classes, I am happy to report that, during the past year, in the schools generally, good progress has been made in the use of methods which tend to excellent results in this branch of instruction. Teachers are giving less attention than formerly to those exercises that produce mechanical reading, and more thought to such an analysis of the reading lesson as requires the pupil to find what it is about, and what it says concerning that. The attention now given to the thoughts represented by the sentences read, is producing a greater degree of intelligence in the manner of reading, and more rapid progress in learning to read new lessons. Those teachers who still neglect these matters, which are so important to success in teaching reading, under the excuse of 'want of time,' usually squander much of the valuable time of their pupils in useless routine exercises, and produce corresponding results. There is no valid reason why progress in good reading should be so slow as it is in some schools. Proper attention to this subject ought to produce a complete revolution in the general character of the reading within a single year; and yet there are many classes, and some schools, in which the character of the reading is at best only stationary, and that in a condition not positively good. If all the Principals of the Primary Schools and departments would give to this matter the same intelligent attention that many now do, the results would become more uniformly excellent, and that mechanical reading, which is destitute of thought, would soon disappear.

"The ability to distinguish the several sounds heard in the pronunciation of words, which the pupils in the primary classes acquire through proper instruction in elementary sounds, has become so general that teachers can, and many do,

employ this knowledge of *phonetics* as an effective aid in teaching reading. In schools where I find the best results in reading, the phonetic exercises are made a part of the process of teaching reading, instead of that of spelling; they being conducted from the reading lesson by the pupil making sounds of given words, or naming the sound represented by given letters in a word, and by pointing out the silent letters. These exercises also aid in learning to spell by means of the attention necessarily given to the letters that represent sounds, and those which are silent, as in *k no w*, *tho ugh*, *bou gh*, *ta ugh t*, *no ugh t*, *ri gh t*, *w rit e*, *k ni gh t*, *hi gh er*, etc."

IS KNOWLEDGE "CATCHING?"

The idea is more and more appreciated in our schools, that the way we are to get everything good is by catching it—on the simple principle of contagion. For instance, we have ascertained, to our satisfaction, that intellectual stupidity is a spirit, not a personal feature; and that a bright, lively perception of truth and appetite for knowledge is a spirit, too, which is catching. We enjoy in the presence of some persons freedom of thought; in their company, mental activity is spontaneous and delightful. But in the presence of others we are sensible of obstructions; mental exertion becomes irksome. We know that the spirit is changed—not by study, but by infection of the spirit. It is not the mind, but the spirit of the mind, which needs renewing; and we know that spirits are changed—not by works, but by grace. We can observe in the school-room that demonstrations on the blackboard by a whole class are much more comprehensible than in the solitary study of the text-books; and we can account for it only on the principle, that the perception is catching, and that there is a great advantage in a community of eyes.

We have a certain study that is indifferent to our taste, but we sit down to it with a friend who is enthusiastic in its pur-

suit ; we catch a love for it, and prosecute it afterward with a relish perfectly surprising to ourselves. We are conscious of being possessed. And we find ourselves more and more susceptible to beauty in things where we could not claim the credit of possessing natural taste, and can only ascribe our sensations to fellowship with cultivated spirits. Some of the gifts we most prize we have caught from spirits above us. The most profitable study of all, then, is the art of sympathy—the art of attracting the influx of superior spirits ; which implies the exercise, particularly, of meekness and obedience, the best virtues that pertain to character. The beauty of this way of getting knowledge is, that it involves unity. All our self-love is enlisted to perfect a common union with others that will make us partakers of their gifts. Individuality finds itself left with a pittance ; the highest bounty is offered to love and sympathy.—G. H. SEIGMAN, *Funkstown, Md.*

WORK vs. IDLENESS.

A striking example of the sanitary effects on body and mind of work as compared with idleness, is given from the records of the New Jersey State prison. In 1874, when all the convicts were employed, there were only three deaths. May 31, 1875, when they were at work, only twenty-one out of 664 were idle because of illness, and only five were insane. December 31, 1875, after six months of idleness, fifty out of 717 were unfit for work, eighteen were insane, and there were thirteen deaths in the year. In 1876 only a few were busy, and there were twenty deaths. In 1877, when 500 out of 835 were at work, there were only eight deaths ; and on December 31 there were thirty-eight unfit for work. In 1878, with only 270 busy, there were nineteen deaths. In January, 1879, with the same number busy, there were 107 in the hands of the doctor.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

BALTIMORE COUNTY.—The teachers of Baltimore county held their quarterly meeting on the second and third of June. The most novel and interesting feature was the lecture of Dr. H. Newell Martin, Professor of Biology in the Johns Hopkins University, delivered before the Association in Hopkins Hall. It is not often that men of original research, who have soared to the heights of their respective specialties, are found willing to come down from the clouds, where they are at home, to minister to the wants of those who are still creeping on the surface of the earth. And of the few who are willing, still fewer are able. The majority bring their wings and their clouds with them to the surface, where they are not needed and not appreciated. But Dr. Martin is one of the few who are both willing and able to come down. His lecture on the skull, the vertebral column, and the foot, considered as contrivances for the protection of the brain, was more than an able presentation of elementary facts in physiology—it was a *model lesson*. We earnestly hope that both the spirit and the method will be accepted by the teachers present as a *faultless pattern of objective teaching*. Without the fire of Tyndall, or the easy grace of Huxley, Dr. Martin shows, in his clear perceptions, his judicious selection, his power of logical arrangement, his pure and nervous English, and his intense (though repressed) earnestness of thought and manner, that he deserves a place in that small band of workers whose glory it is to have made science popular without making it either superficial or inaccurate.

CECIL COUNTY.—The Teachers' Association of the Sixth, Seventh and and Eighth districts met at the Odd Fellows' Hall, Port Deposit, on Saturday, April 5. The meeting was called to order at 1:40 P.M., and was opened with prayer by Rev. T. J. Aiken. The roll being called, thirty-six members were found present and eight absent. The committee appointed to secure a larger hall for the meetings of the Association reported progress, and was continued.

Miss Ella A. Jenkins read an interesting essay on "Silent Influences," and Mr. J. A. Calhoun read one entitled "America—Our Country, Our Home." Miss Mary Sauter then read, with excellent effect, "The Engineer's Story." An extract from the report of the Secretary of the State Board of Education, as published in the February number of THE MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL, pages 172 to 175, was then read, and the views there expressed were opposed by Messrs. J. Thomas Hynes, John D. C. Hanna, George W. Hanna, George W. Nichol, and, in part, by Rev. John Squier and Mr. V. H. Watts; and advocated by Mr. J. C. Warner.

The resolution—"That this Association most respectfully recommends to the Board of School Commissioners the substitution of

White's Series of Arithmetics for those now in use," was discussed by Messrs. John D. C. Hanna, John A. Calhoun, J. C. Warner, G. W. Nichol and J. Thomas Hynes, and, upon motion, it was unanimously adopted.

About one hundred and fifty persons were present at the meeting, including several honorary members. This increase of general interest, demonstrated by the increased attendance, is very gratifying to the members of the Association.

ABSENT FROM HIS POST.—Mr. F. S. Everist, President of the Board of School Commissioners of Cecil county, was not present at the last meeting of the Board, having been summoned as a witness at a trial in Chestertown. This is the first meeting he has failed to attend since he was appointed School Commissioner eleven years ago.

SCHOOL VISITATIONS.—During the month of April the Principal of the State Normal School visited, as required by law, the High Schools at Havre de Grace, Chestertown and Centreville. He found them well attended, well organized and well taught. He is inclined to think the "Seventh Grade" at Chestertown is one of the brightest classes he ever "handled."

WRONG QUESTIONS.—"What is the reason, Mr. B., that I can never get an answer from you?" "I don't know, Professor Newell, unless it is because you don't ask the right kind of questions." The Professor retired to consider and "make a note on't."—Thanks!

ONE DOLLAR A MONTH.—It is not hard to remember, and it will be worth while to remember, "One dollar a month." That is the average cost of the State school system of Maryland—"one dollar a month" for every pupil on the school register. And this "one dollar a month" pays not only for teachers' salaries, but for building school-houses, for keeping them in repair, for furniture, for fuel, for books in great part, and for all expenses connected with the administration, such as salary of Examiner, *per diem* of Commissioners, travelling expenses, Teachers' Institutes, etc. All this for "one dollar a month" from every pupil. And yet some people are not satisfied! Reader, when a man tells you the school tax is too high, tell him the average cost of each pupil is only "a dollar a month;" and ask him if he would like to teach school and keep the house in repair, and supply it with fuel for less than "a dollar a month." If he says it costs more than that in his county, tell him the highest cost in any county is \$1.53, and the lowest is seventy-six cents. If he asks how you know, refer him to the last report of the State Board. If a man tells you that

teachers' salaries must be reduced, tell him that teachers are only getting their share (about two-thirds) of "one dollar a month" for every pupil. The other third goes to building, books, fuel, and general expenses. Don't forget that the entire cost of the public school system of Maryland (not including the city of Baltimore) is only "one dollar a month" for every pupil actually receiving instruction.

A DOLLAR A YEAR.—A dollar from every child who went to the public schools last year would have paid the entire expense of repairing old houses, building and furnishing new houses, and would have left over the handsome surplus of \$5,000. Reader, if a man tells you we are spending too much money on school-houses, tell him that we are spending less than a dollar a year for every pupil, and this dollar a year comes out of the "dollar a month" already mentioned.

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MONEY WASTED.—"We pay for the education of 100,000 children (exactly 110,323), but only 50,000 were at school on an average (exactly 52,311); so one-half of that million of dollars was wasted." In one sense, yes; in another, no. The money was wasted in so far as the people failed to receive full value for all the money expended. The money was not wasted in the sense meant by the objector—that it could have been saved. It costs as much to teach a school of twenty pupils as a school of forty. If only twenty are present when there should be forty, it is not the money that is wasted, for the money could not have been saved, except by closing the school entirely; but the teaching power. In the present state of society, it seems to be impossible to run the educational mill without allowing a considerable amount of water to run over the head of the dam. The only way to save the water is to give the mill more work to do.

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AIDS TO FAMILY GOVERNMENT; or, "FROM THE CRADLE TO THE SCHOOL ACCORDING TO FROEBEL. By Bertha Meyer. Translated by M. L. Holbrook, M.D. New York: M. L. Holbrook & Co. Pp. 208, 12mo.

We quote a few detached sentences:

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"Do not notice every little fault and reprove it. How would you like this yourself?"

"If any part of a child's nature is weak or deficient, take particular pains to develop it by proper training."

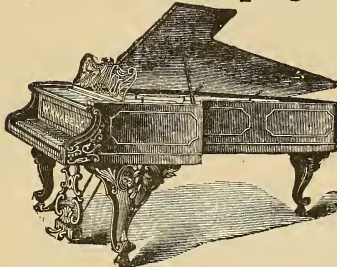
"Multitudes of children are badly born, and it is impossible, by any system of training, to make them what they should be. Remember this, and then do your best."

"Do not try to produce an ideal child. It would find no fitness in this world."

"Never become discouraged. The fruit of your labors may not show itself at once, but be sure, if you have planted and watered wisely, there will be in the end an abundant return of happiness for your work."

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July, 1879.

No. 10.

THE MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.

M. A. NEWELL,

Principal of the State Normal School,

CHAS. G. EDWARDS,

Pres't Teachers' Ass'n of Baltimore,

EDITORS.

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THE
MARYLAND SCHOOL JOURNAL.
DEVOTED TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION.

Vol. V.

JULY, 1879.

No. 10.

THE ORIGIN OF OUR SCHOOLS.

[From the "Salutatory" delivered at the Commencement of the State Normal School, May 29, 1879, by Frederick S. Myerly.]

It would be a fatal error to look on schools as if they were established either to increase the influence of a commissioner or to find a living for a teacher. The true theory of the public school is, that it is a public institution for the benefit of the whole community. It is not a system for the benefit of any particular class; it is not intended specially for the rich; nor especially for the middle classes, nor especially for the poor. It is for all. Like the sun it shines on the rich and on the poor; like the rain it falls on the just and on the unjust. To limit the sphere of its operation to any single class of citizens, would be to pervert it from its legitimate purpose, and to prepare the way for its downfall. Whenever the schools cease to be public in the same sense in which the courts of justice are public, and to be universal in the same sense in which the ballot is universal, and to be common in the same sense in which the turnpike roads are common, they will cease to have a legitimate claim on public support. It is true that the poor need these schools more than the rich, but it does not follow that for that reason they should be made poor schools. The claim of our schools to public support is

not on the ground that they are charities, but on the ground that they are public benefits. We support the almshouse and the free dispensary, because, as Christian people, we cannot see the poor and the afflicted suffering for want of food and medicine, and not extend them relief. We support the post-office and the common schools not from feelings of charity, but as a matter of business. It pays to have cheap correspondence. It pays to have cheap schools. What should we think of the argument that the post-office was established for the good of the poor, and that rich people should pay for the carriage of their own letters? Equally futile is the claim that public schools were intended only for the poor, and therefore the rich should pay for the education of their own children. And just as fallacious is the statement that the public school has been perverted from its original purpose and design. Even granting that that purpose was originally the education of the poor, it does not follow that this design was not capable of further development and improvement. The post-office was at first established for the purpose of carrying written letters only. By degrees its functions were enlarged until now the mail carries not only written letters, but printed circulars, newspapers, pamphlets, bound books, and almost every kind of light-weight merchandise. But the assumption that the public schools were originally intended to be schools for the poor alone, must not for a moment be tolerated. Whatever may have taken place in exceptional cases, it is matter of history, that the idea of education for the whole community, at the expense (in part, at least,) of the whole community, was one of the fundamental principles on which the present fabric of American institutions rests. So far as Maryland is concerned, it would be nearer the truth to say that free schools were first established for the benefit of the wealthy, and were afterwards converted to the use of the poor. So far from the high school being a useless limb which should be lopped off by the pruning-knife, it was in Maryland the root of which the common schools were the branches. Nearly two hundred

years ago—to be exact, in the year 1696, the General Assembly of Maryland presented a petitionary Act to his majesty King William III, which was duly approved and became a colonial law, from which I take the following extract: *May it be enacted:* “That for the propagation of the Gospel, and the education of the youth of their province in good letters and manners, that a certain place or places for a free school or schools, or place of study of Latin, Greek, writing, and the like, may be made, erected, founded, propagated and established under your royal patronage.” The first free school in Maryland was, therefore, a high school or “place of study of Latin, Greek, and the like.” And in compliance with this law, King William’s School, now Saint John’s College, was established. It deserves to be noticed, that this was not intended to be an exceptional school, but one of a system that was to cover the whole State. For the same Act provides for the establishment of a second free school, “for the study of Latin, Greek, and the like,” at Oxford, in Talbot county, and goes on to order the rectors, governors and visitors, to proceed to the erecting of other and more free schools in this province, that is to say, in every county of this province, at present, one free school “for the study of Latin, Greek, and the like.” Thus, not only was the first free school in Maryland a high school, but the first system of public schools was a high school system. Our fathers may have been wrong. It would be presumptuous in me to argue that great question. I merely say that history shows that the common schools have grown out of the high schools, and not the high schools from the common schools. If, therefore, people propose to abolish high schools, let them understand that by so doing, they will effectually lay the ax to the root of the tree. Ladies and gentlemen, it is as friends of public schools, not class schools, not charity schools, not pauper schools, not eleemosynary schools, but public schools for the public good, embracing primary and grammar schools, and including high and normal schools, not as superfluous branches, but as essential organs, it is as friends of these public schools, as now by law established, that the class of ’79 bids you welcome to this annual festival.

CONSTRUCTION OF ENGLISH WORDS.

We are accustomed to speak of the English language as being an arbitrary one, and that is no doubt measurably the case, at least so far as regards pronunciation ; and while rules have been laid down which are supposed to govern the pronunciation of words, yet these rules are subject to so many exceptions as to make them at least uncertain and unreliable.

But our language is preëminently a derivative one, and in order to understand fully the meaning of words that have come into common use, it seems almost necessary either to have a knowledge of the original language, or, if that is wanting, then at least access to such text-books as will supply the deficiency. Aside from what has come to us from the Saxon, we may be said to be dependent, in a great measure, upon the Latin and Greek languages for our own. With their primitive roots, and prefixes used often to denote a positive or negative quality, and suffixes to point out or distinguish the part of speech, there seems to be hardly a limit to the capability of coining words which are used generally and understandingly without often those using them being able really to account for their origin. It is within the bounds of probability to say that there is scarcely a day passes that we do not make use of words that are purely Greek or Latin, without knowing or thinking of them as such. Take, for instance, the word *omnibus*, a term fitly applied to the vehicle in such common use. We all understand its meaning as ordinarily applied, and yet, perhaps, one-half of those so employing it neither know the language from which it comes, nor are aware how applicable the meaning of the word (for all) is as applied to the vehicle ; how nearly the familiar word *echo* corresponds to the Latin derivation, or, to go back to the original Greek, to the word *echeo* (*echeo*)—to sound ; or the common term *ire*, is to *ira* (anger). Derivative words may, in a general way, be said to be divided into three classes—the one class consisting of the root and prefix, a second class of the root and suffix, and the third

of root, prefix and suffix. It may also be asserted of the prefix that it either gives to the word a negative meaning, or else intensifies the primary meaning of the root; of the suffix, that it very often determines the part of speech, as has been before said. Take, as an example, the different words derivable from *muto* (to change). First, we have *mutable*, a word belonging to the second division, and, by its termination or suffix, at once showing it to be an adjective. A change of suffixes indicates a change in the parts of speech, as for instance—*mutability*, or, *mutation*, being nouns, *mutably* an adverb, etc. Now, if to the root and suffix, *mutable*, we add the prefix, *im*, we give the word a negative signification; or if we, instead of that, add *com* or *trans*, we intensify (if we may be allowed the expression) the original root. One more example may not be inappropriate, based upon the root, *scio* (to know). *Science*, which includes the root and suffix, in its primary sense, means *knowledge*, but with the prefix, *con*, thus making *conscience*, the meaning becomes intensified, and really coins a compound word, viz., *self-knowledge*.

The necessarily limited space and time which should govern articles for THE JOURNAL forbid enlarging further on this subject. Perhaps, nothing is more fascinating to the etymological student than the task of tracing words from their roots to their primary and secondary significations, and even beyond that limit—to observe how the primary meaning, like the root, will often indicate a physical quality, while the secondary meaning will be a mental attribute. But we will not yield again to the temptation of illustrating this branch of the subject. In conclusion, it may be said that the past decade has been prolific both of new words and of word-coiners, and, also, that to no class of persons are we indebted more for this than to editors, both of daily and literary journals, and to reporters. They far excel in fecundity the philologist proper. It may be recollected by some that, not many years ago, a newspaper reporter announced in a dispatch from New York the suicide of a young man in St. Paul's Church during service, the

cause—*impecuniosity*. There was great doubt amongst many who read it, whether the word meant “poison,” or something else as fatal to human life. Of course, a rush was made for Webster’s Unabridged (as it then was), when lo and behold! the word was not there. That reporter may have been responsible for a new edition of the dictionary, for it may now be found there in all its length and breadth.—W. H. MORRIS.

METHODS OF CULTURE.

Principles never change, but methods are constantly varying. The principles of education grow out of the constitution of the human mind, which is the same in all ages and among all people, and hence they are essentially unchanging. The education of the youth of the present generation is based on the same fundamental principles as those on which the education of all former ages was founded. Amidst the great changes which the revolutions of the ages have produced, these principles remain *semper et ubique*, always and everywhere the same. They comprehend intellectual discipline, the acquisition of knowledge, the cultivation of the power of thought, the inculcation of correct habits of thinking, and the development of all the intellectual faculties.

But methods of culture are perpetually changing. They ought to be considered only as means to an end, the end being always the same, but the means varying continually, so as to adapt themselves to the changing characteristics of nations and generations of men. The work to be done is the same in all cases, but the ways of doing it are various.

This thought may enable us to form a just estimate of the value of discussions about methods of culture. They are only different ways of reaching the same result, different means of accomplishing the same end. Hence no educator has a right to impose his method of culture on his neighbor, by saying that unless he works in his way he will not succeed.

There is no such thing as one stereotyped and unchangeable method of culture. There is one unalterable system of correct principles in the science of education, on which all true intellectual culture depends—but there may be a hundred ways of applying these principles in the processes of education, a hundred methods of culture. In the broad fields of education, every teacher must adopt his own methods, and work for himself and in his own way, as every other man in the world does. In the school-room, as in the world, a man must be *himself* if he would succeed. He must put his own individuality into his work. He must be modelled after no other pattern of a teacher. He must be his own standard, must project *himself* into his work, and must do his work in the way in which he is capable of doing it best.

He may read the thoughts of other men on the subject of education, he may study the plans of other teachers in the work of education, and thus he may get all the help he can from the experience and instruction of others. But let him, by no means, attempt a servile imitation of anybody. Let him make his own method of culture. Let him reason it out for himself, and accept it as the method by which he can most successfully accomplish his work. If he approves another teacher's plan of instruction, let him incorporate it into his own nature, assimilate it to his own mind, adapt it to his own habits and capacities, before he adopts it as his plan of instruction; else, by making an *abstraction* of himself, he may fail to do his work successfully. We need live teachers—teachers who throw the whole of their individuality into their work—teachers who make their own methods of culture, methods which are a part of themselves, animated by their own hearts, developed by their own brains, beating with their own pulse, breathing with their own breath, and inspired with their own vitality.

Of course, every instructor must thoroughly understand the departments of knowledge which he proposes to teach. He must also have the art of communicating the knowledge which

he possesses. He must be able, too, to awaken in the minds of his pupils an intense desire for the acquisition of knowledge, and he must be deeply interested in the great work to which his life is devoted—the work of education. He must also have the power of adaptation, so as to use the proper means in the case of each of his pupils—the means which will best promote their true intellectual culture. Teachers may have these necessary qualifications, and yet there may be a great variety among them in other respects. In the discipline of their pupils, they may be mild or sharp, persuasive or argumentative, gentle or severe, according to the pupils they have to govern and their own capacity for governing them. In the infliction of punishments, some may best succeed by administering the rod, while others may do their work better by discarding it. All that we contend for is that, as other men differ and must differ in the various methods of attaining the ends to which they aspire, so teachers must be allowed the same privilege, and each must be permitted to do his work in his own way—that is, in the way by which he will best succeed, because it is best adapted to his capacities.

But no man can become a really good teacher, such a teacher as will prove an ornament to the profession, who makes an abstraction of himself, and allows himself to become a “cut and dried” specimen of any of the various methods of culture. The honor of the profession and the successful prosecution of the work of the profession demand that each teacher should allow his own individuality to stand out in bold relief. Then, if he be a man of unimpeachable character, detesting everything that is mean, hating every species of falsehood, taking pleasure in his work, putting confidence in his pupils, honoring his profession, feeling the importance of his mission, and utterly disdaining to cringe to any obstreperous patron who may attempt to control him in his policy—then he will prove himself a true man and a true teacher, whose worth the world will some day acknowledge, and whose fame will go down to succeeding ages.—*The Teacher.*

NEEDED REFORMS.

We should stop telling the boys that they are to become clerks, lawyers, doctors, preachers, judges, governors, congressmen, presidents, etc. Let them understand that these places are overcrowded now, and that the great majority of them, whether rich or poor, willing or unwilling, must earn their bread with their hands guided by their brains.

In teaching spelling we may save time by teaching only such words as the pupils can and will use intelligently. Reading should be taught for its practical use in enabling the pupils to interpret the thought symbolized on the printed page rather than for elocutionary display. Penmanship should be taught by means of free movements, so that the pupil may be a rapid business writer before leaving school, and not required to spend the writing hour in mere imitation of copies with a slow finger movement. In arithmetic we may make it practical, and yet save much time by leaving out in an elementary course such things as "casting out the mines," "arbitration of exchange," "circulates, or repretends," "finding the true remainder," etc.

Instead of so much technical grammar, let us teach composition and the practical use of language. In teaching geography, take less time for teaching unimportant details, and more time in teaching the sources and qualities of the raw materials used in manufactures. In testing a pupil's knowledge of an art, we should require him to do something, rather than ask him to tell how it should be done. In geometry, we can require pupils to solve problems with the ruler and compass, as well as to demonstrate. We can also show the application of this science to the making of working drawings. If these suggestions are heeded, we shall find some time for the natural sciences and drawing. These bring the student into contact with matter in form and substance. It is with the form and qualities of matter that we are all obliged to wage an unrelenting warfare, and thus demonstrate our fitness to survive or to be crushed to dust. The preparation of food, raiment,

and other necessities and luxuries, requires the change of matter in form or qualities, or both. Hence, the sciences above named have preëminently a technical tendency.—S. S. THOMPSON, in *The Educational News-Gleaner*.

THE NORMAL INSTITUTE.

In the minds of many, the Normal Institute is a vague idea, having no definite significance as a conception; it is made to vary so as to represent anything or nothing, and is not inaptly symbolized by that ultimate in philosophy in which nothing equals being. In one sense it is a new factor in the American system of public instruction; but in another, it is the realization of an idea adopted by some of our most thoughtful educators several years ago.

To avoid confusion in the use of terms, distinctness is necessary at the out-set. The Normal Institute is not a normal school, a county institute, a graded school, college, nor university. Strong resemblances it bears to some of these, but there are also marked differences which preclude the idea of sameness or identity. But the Normal Institute may be defined as a special kind of training school, organized for the benefit of a large number of teachers who have not been instructed how to teach and how to conduct a school.

This is the function of a Normal Institute. There are other subsidiary modifications branching off from the main stem, which will change the character of the Institute to some extent.

Statistics show that the average time teachers follow their vocation is not far from three years. Forty per cent. of the teachers in some of the States quit or are dropped out annually. The survival of the fittest has no application in this country, among teachers. An analysis of that army of three hundred thousand teachers would give many curious and interesting results. There would be found the young, the giddy, the thoughtless boys and girls yet in their teens, having no qualifi-

cations for the important duties they are trying to perform. But then, another group more numerous—already crystallized and fossilized—impecunious specimens who have failed at every step in life—must be provided for, and as a kind of public charity—the public schools get them. Another class is found mixed here and there among the multitude. They are the teachers; the men and women who mould character and shape national destiny. To them, as benefactors of the nation, and the friends of humanity, we owe a debt of everlasting gratitude.

The masses, sluggish in educational movements, are partially aroused at last, and the question is: What can be done to improve the unskillful teachers, and how can it be done the quickest?

Normal schools, county institutes, high schools, colleges, and universities are, in the main, doing good work, but they are entirely inadequate to supply the pressing demand for qualified teachers. The only practical remedy, though necessarily imperfect, is the Normal Institute system.

Since there are intelligent persons claiming that normal schools may be supplanted by Normal Institutes, it is worth while to examine this assumption.

Normal school advocates represent two antagonistic ideas. One side contends that all instruction in normal schools should be strictly professional; that is, that all branches, if studied at all, are simply reviewed. Of course, this idea cannot be realized, only on the condition that the literary training has been properly attended to prior to admission to the normal school. Normal schools in cities carry out this conception.

The other contends, and correctly too, that in State normals, the literary and professional instruction must be combined. They assert that it is impossible to get graduates from colleges, high schools, and universities to attend normal schools to receive a few finishing touches. Here the matter rests.

Years are required to master the branches and to understand educational methods. A deep philosophy underlies the whole system of education. It is manifest that these cannot be learned

in four weeks. Normal schools are usually supplied with first-class instructors, master workmen. Normal Institutes are too frequently conducted by instructors minus all necessary qualifications. Normal school work is thorough work, well finished and rounded up; Normal Institute work is hasty work, spread over much territory, more suggestive than reflective, and usually very imperfect.

The two schools agree in this, that the literary and professional are blended—in the one it is a harmonious blending of all the tints and shades; in the other, it is a jumbled mixture.

From the preceding, the scope of the Normal Institute may be summed up in a few words: To improve the public schools by teaching the teachers what and how to study; how to systematize their knowledge; how to present it in the most attractive form; how to adapt the instruction to all grades of pupils; and how to manage school business to the best advantage.—J. M. GREENWOOD, in the *Educational Weekly*.

PRACTICAL EDUCATION.—The general education of the day certainly cannot be said to be perfect in its methods, or the best possible means to the end sought. We teach boys book-keeping when we expect them to become clerks; Latin and Greek when we intend them to enter the learned professions. But what do we teach girls, who are to become mothers and housewives, or, it may be, who will need to become domestic servants? A London comic paper recently published a clever print showing a maid-servant applying for a place, and with the following conversation for its legend: Lady—"You have not been out to service yet, therefore you have no character?". Applicant—"No, mum; but I've got three school board certificates." Lady—"Ah! well, that's something. Are they for honesty, cleanliness, or ——?" Applicant—"No, please mum; for literatoor, jografy and free-hand drawin'." The satire is true enough to bite. *Mutatis mutandis*, it illustrates the most radical defect of our common school systems.—*Baltimore Sun*.

SHORT WORDS.

We are indebted to the *Educational Weekly* for the following quotation from Robert Collyer, which we commend especially to the consideration of the green graduates of the season :

This world is a great school-house, in which through life we all teach, and we all learn. Here we must study to find out what is good and what is bad, what is true and what is false, and thus get ready to act in some other sphere. What we are at the end of this life we shall be when the next begins. We must spare no pains, then, when we teach others or ourselves. We teach ourselves by what we hear and read and think—others by our words. We must take care that we think and speak in a way so clear that we do not cheat ourselves, or mislead others by vague or misty ideas. We must put our thoughts into words, and we must get in a way of using these in thought with the same care we use when we speak or write to others. Words give a body or form to our ideas, without which they are apt to be so foggy that we do not see where they are weak or false. When we put them into a body of words, we will, as a rule, learn how much of truth there is in them, for in that form we can turn them over in our minds. If we write them out, we find that in many cases the ideas we thought we had hold of fade away when put in this test. But if they prove to be real or of value, they are thus not only made clear to us, but they are in a shape where we can make them clear to others. We have a proof of how much we thus gain when we state to others our doubts ; for, as a rule, we solve them, when we do this, before we hear what they have to say. In most cases, what we say to others, not what they say to us when we consult them, settles the doubt.

We must not only think in words, but we must also try to use the best words and those which, in speech will, put what is in our minds into the minds of others. This is the great art which those must gain who wish to teach in the school, in the church, at the bar, or through the press. To do this in the

right way, they should use the short words which we learn in early life, and which have the same sense to all classes of men. They are the best for the teacher, the orator, and the poet. If you will look at what has been said in prose or in verse, that comes down to us through many years, which struck all minds, and that men most quote, you will find that they are in short words of our own tongue. Count them in Gray's *Elegy*, which all love to read, and you will find that they make up a large share of all that he uses. The English of our Bible is good. Now and then some long words are found, and they always hurt the verses in which you find them. Take that which says: "Oh, ye generation of vipers, who hath warned you to flee from the wrath to come?" There is one long word which ought not to be in it, namely, generation. In the old version the word "brood" is used. Read the verse again with this term, and you feel its full force: "Oh, ye viper's brood, who hath warned you to flee from the wrath to come?"

William H. Maynard, a very able man, who stood high in his country and his state, once wrote out a speech for the Fourth of July in words of one syllable, save names. His strength was very much due to the fact that, in thought and speech, he made it a rule to use as few words as he could, and those that were short and clear. If he had lived out his term of threescore years, he would have been known as one of the great men of his state.

I do not mean to say that the mere fact that the word is short makes it clear, but it's true that most clear words are short, that most long words we get from other tongues, and the mass of men do not know exactly what they mean, and I am not sure that scholars always get the same ideas from them. A word must be used a great deal, as short ones are, before it means the same thing to all.

Those who wish to teach or to lead others must first learn to think and speak in a clear way. The use of long words which we get from other tongues, not only makes our thoughts and our speech dim and hazy, but it has done somewhat to harm

the morals of our people. Crime sometimes does not look like crime when it is set before us in the many folds of a long word. When a man steals, and we call it "defalcation," we are at a loss to know if it is a blunder or a crime. If he does not tell the truth, and we are told that it is a case of "prevarication," it takes us some time to know just what we should think of it. No man will ever cheat himself into wrong-doing, nor will he be at a loss to judge of others, if he thinks and speaks of acts in clear, crisp terms. It is a good rule, if one is at a loss to know if an act is right or wrong, to write it down in a short, straight-out English.

He who will try to use short words and to shun long ones, will, in a little while, not only learn that he can do so with ease, but that it will also make him more ready in the use of words of Greek and Latin origin when he needs them. If he tries to write in words of one syllable, he will find that he will run through a great many words to get those he needs. They are brought to his mind in his search for those he wants. It is a good way to learn words of all kinds. When a man is in search of one fact, he may be led to look at every book in his library, and thus he finds many things.

There is another gain when we try to use only short words. To bring them in and keep all others out, we have to take a great many views of the topic about which we write or speak. In this way we start many new thoughts and ideas that would not otherwise spring up. I am sure, if this plan is tried, men will be struck with the many phases brought to their view of things they study, that they would not see if they used words in the usual mode. In this way men not only learn more about words, but more about the topics of which they write, for they will not be able to carry out their plan without looking at their subject on every side.

Dr. Johnson loved long words. But when he wrote in wrath to Lord Chesterfield, he broke away from the fogs and clouds and roar of his five-syllable terms, and went at his lordship in a way so terse and sharp that all can see that he felt what he said.

Love, nor hate, nor zeal, ever waste their force by the use of involved or long-winded phrases. Short words are not vague sounds which lull us as they fall upon the ear. They have a clear ring which stirs our minds or touches our hearts. They best tell of joy or grief, of rage or peace, of life or death. They are felt by all, for their terms mean the same thing to all men. We learn them in youth; they are on our lips through all days, and we utter them down to the close of life. They are the apt terms with which we speak of things which are high or great or noble. They are the grand words of our tongue; they teach us how the world was made. God said, "Let there be light, and there was light."

MONOSYLLABICS.

Think not that strength lies in the big round word;
Or that the brief and plain must needs be weak.
To whom can this be true who once has heard
The cry for help, the tongue that all men speak
When want, or woe, or fear, is in the throat,
So that each word gasped out is like a shriek
Pressed from the sore heart, or a strange wild note
Sung by some fay or fiend? There is a strength
Which dies if stretched too far, or spun too fine;
Which has more weight than breadth, more depth than length.
Let but this force be mine of thought and speech,
And he that will may take the sleek fat phrase
Which glows and burns not, though it gleam and shine;
Light but not heat; a flash without a blaze!
Nor is it mere strength that the short word boasts.
It serves of more than fight or storm to tell—
The roar of waves that clash on rock-bound coasts;
The crash of tall trees when the wild winds swell;
The roar of guns, the groans of men that die
On blood-stained fields. It has a voice as well
For them that weep; for them that mourn the dead;
For them that laugh, and dance, and clap the hands
To joy's quick step, as well as grief's slow tread.
The sweet plain words we learnt at first keep tune;
And though the theme be sad, or gay, or grand,
With such, with all, these may be made to chime
In thought, or speech, or song, or prose, or rhyme.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

A BRIEF OUTLINE OF ITS HISTORY.

As many of our readers are not familiar with the history of the American Institute, it may not be untimely for us to give a brief account of its history. In March, 1830, a meeting of teachers was held in Boston to consider and discuss the condition of educational concerns, and a resolution was made "to form a permanent association of persons engaged and interested in the business of instruction." A committee was raised to draft a constitution and make the preliminary arrangements for the organization. Two of that committee, George B. Emerson, LL.D., of Boston, and Hon. Henry K. Oliver, of Salem, are still living.

The committee followed their instructions and extended a call for a meeting to be held in the Representatives Hall of the State House in Boston, August 19, 1830. Fifteen States were represented by over two hundred persons, chiefly teachers, and as a measure of their zeal we have to relate that they traveled from the remote parts of our land by stage-coach, and remained in session five days, during which time the American Institute of Instruction was given an existence. Francis Wayland, President of Brown University, Providence, R. I., was elected its first president, and Gideon F. Thayer, of Boston, first secretary. The first vote passed was to the effect that all prefixes and affixes, excepting only such as designate the presidents and professors of colleges, should be removed from the lists of officers chosen, and our officers henceforth have been designated by the democratic title, "Mr." Until the year 1838, the public were rigidly excluded from attendance upon the meetings. Efforts to open the doors to the public were unsuccessful until, on motion of Mr. Thayer, at the meeting at Lowell, the second held outside of Boston, the citizens of that city were invited to attend. Since that time the attendance at the Institute has been uniformly large, and

the membership to date numbers over 4,000 persons, mostly teachers, and representing more than half the States of the Union. Of the forty-eight meetings previous to the last, twenty-three have been held in Massachusetts, five in Maine, seven in New Hampshire, four in Vermont, three in Rhode Island, five in Connecticut and one in New York. Until the formation of the National Teachers' Association in 1856, it was the only general association of teachers in the country, and the name "American" was given it as expressive of its character as a leading representative of the American system, as well as the New England ideas of education. During the forty-nine years of its life, over four hundred lectures and addresses have been made by men and women of experience and culture on topics connected with the work of the common schools, the normal schools and the colleges.

In 1874 the Institute was made self-supporting by an act which, at the time, was considered by some its death-blow. Prior to that date, the Massachusetts Legislature had appropriated \$300 annually for its support, which, for reasons not wise to state here, was then withheld. This was made the occasion for rallying the educators of New England to its support, and since that date we have had no lack of means to carry on our work with an unwonted vigor; and we trust our treasury will be put in such a condition that our treasurer will be required to give bonds for official faithfulness. With few exceptions, the Institute has published the volume of its proceedings annually, including in it the addresses and lectures delivered before it; and it is believed that there is no series of volumes in our language so rich in pedagogical instruction and philosophy as the journals of this Institute. The volume of 1877 contains a catalogue of all the members of the Institute, from the first to the present meeting—a list of names worthy to be enrolled on "Fame's eternal bead-roll."

The annual membership fee is one dollar. Any person, teacher or otherwise, interested in the objects of the association, can become a member by signing the constitution and paying

one dollar to the treasurer. The sum thus collected enables it to meet its expenses, and the payment of the fee entitles members to a share in the perquisites of the association.—*New England Journal of Education*.

RULES FOR HOME EDUCATION.

1. From your children's earliest infancy, inculcate the necessity of instant obedience.

2. Unite firmness with gentleness. Let your children always understand that you mean what you say.

3. Never promise them anything unless you are quite sure you can give them what you say.

4. If you tell a little child to do something, show him how to do it, and see that it is done.

5. Always punish your children for wilfully disobeying you, but never punish them in anger.

6. Never let them perceive that they vex you, or make you lose your self-command.

7. If they give way to petulance or ill-temper, wait till they are calm, and then gently reason with them on the impropriety of their conduct.

8. Remember that a little present punishment, when the occasion arises, is much more effectual than the threatening of a greater punishment should the fault be renewed.

9. Never give your children anything because they cry for it.

10. On no account allow them to do at one time what you have forbidden, under the same circumstances, at another.

11. Teach them that the only sure and easy way to appear good is to be good.

12. Accustom them to make their little recitals with perfect truth.

13. Never allow of tale-bearing.

14. Teach them self-denial, not self-indulgence of an angry and resentful spirit.—*Home Illustrated*.

POISON IN FOOD-PLANTS.

Tomatoes are not without some defects as an article of food. They are not, like milk, a perfect diet of themselves, and besides, like most other articles of food, they contain some obnoxious qualities. But they need not be thrown aside on that account. Nature has provided us with such efficient excretory organs that obnoxious matter in our food, if in moderate amount, is readily cast out, and the body is protected against any material injury. Were it not so, we should be obliged to throw out of our dietary many kinds of food now eaten, not only with impunity, but with advantage. Thus, red cabbage, cherries and peaches contain Prussic acid, which is a deadly poison when taken in a sufficient quantity. The very small amount of poisoning acid these vegetables contain is cast out of the system without any material injury to the person using them. A positive good may actually be derived from the use of food containing some such foreign matter by way of giving increased activity and strength to the excretory organs from their exercise in casting such foreign matter from our bodies, provided the quantity is not so great as to overburden them. Since we are all the time liable to take in our food substances, the tendency of which is harmful, a good development of efficiency in our excretory organs is necessary to protect us against the pernicious effects which might otherwise occur. Almost every kind of grain and fruit in use contains more or less of things which if in larger amount would prove hurtful. Unless we closely study our food, we are taking them in when we little suspect it. A Frenchman, not many years ago, discovered a substance in wheat bran, which, under the high heat used in baking, dissolved out and spread over the crumb of bread, of which bran forms a part, and discolored it, and hence the brown stain peculiar to Graham bread. But from this discovery such bread has not been rejected, but continues to be accounted among the most wholesome kinds of food. Rye is seldom used without con-

taining more or less ergot, but rye is also reckoned among the most healthful. Tea contains tannic acid, apples contain malic acid, lemons and oranges citric acid, neither of which is used either in nutrition or respiration, but they only become objectionable when used excessively.

Tomatoes, in common with most other fruits, contain some poisonous matter. They and the egg plant, Jerusalem cherry, bitter-sweet, deadly night-shade, and the common potato plant, all belong to the same genus—*Solanum*—the fruit of every species of which is more or less poisonous, but none of them very much so. The fruit of the deadly night-shade and of the potato (potato balls) are probably the most poisonous. But even these are not very hurtful. The smaller amount contained in tomatoes allows of their being classed with the esculent fruits, but there is, nevertheless, enough to give them a peculiar flavor, not apt to be relished by unaccustomed palates, but which use soon renders agreeable. Used very largely, tomatoes would doubtless develop specific results peculiar to the fruit of the genus to which they belong, especially with feeble persons, and those who, from their peculiar constitutions, are susceptible to such influences. But when moderately used by persons in fair health, there is no more reason for rejecting them than there would be in rejecting lettuce for the opium it contains.

Pie plant stands in similar relations. Its prominent characteristic and flavor are the result of oxalic acid, which is a powerful poison. For persons not having sufficient vigor to dispose of such a strong acid, and for those in whose systems there is already an excess of acid, such highly acid food would be objectionable. But its moderate use by people in common health is no more objectionable than many other acid foods in daily use, and regarded as healthful.—*New York Tribune*.

PRECEPT and example, like the blades of a pair of scissors, are admirably adapted to their end, when conjoined; separated, they lose the greater portion of their utility.

MORE THAN THE THREE R'S.

Mr. Forster, of England, who has devoted many years and much labor to the observation and study of national systems of education, and who is regarded on both sides of the Atlantic as an authority, says :

"There are three branches of study which always strike me individually as being of enormous importance—namely, one for brain-teaching and brain-training, one for social comfort in after life, and the other for fitting future men to perform their political duties. First, there must be a good primary school for every boy and every girl. Next, there must be some agency for getting at those children whose parents utterly neglect them. Again, there must be good evening classes at which those boys and girls who are obliged to leave school early in order to earn their daily bread can carry on their education in the evening. Then there ought to be a good technical school in which should be given scientific and theoretical teaching adapted to the peculiar industries of each city. There ought to be not only good grammar schools, but also intermediate schools for the benefit of those children whose parents can afford to keep them in school to the age of 12 to 14 at home, and yet could not afford to send them to a boarding school. And lastly, there should be some college which would either supply the place of a university or give culture in such a way as to serve as a stepping-stone to the great universities."

THE greatest loss of time is delay and expectation which depends upon the future. We let go the present, which we have in our power, and look forward to that which depends upon chance, and so relinquish a certainty for an uncertainty.

FROM A TEACHER'S DIARY.

He who speaks too much tires himself and his scholars.

Not what we say, but what the children learn, shows the worth of the school work.

If we could always feel ourselves the wants and the ability of the child, many a random shot would not be made. An independent opinion, a free and full rendering of what was taught by the teacher, is worth more than a tubful of mechanically memorized things; but certain things must be absolutely and firmly entrusted to the memory, to serve as material to reason upon—we cannot cipher with *noughts only*.

The greatest gain in instruction is obtained, if the children become *desirous* of learning.

Not the sum of things learned, but the mental facility manifested by the scholars in thought, speech and writing, is the true criterion of the school's standing.

The question, "Why," is the spade wherewith we dig the earth and uncover its hidden treasures.

The scholar's final aim is not what he can *do*, but what he shall grow to be.

Morality has for its foundation, firm habit, religious warmth of the heart, and clear thought.—V. SCHEER.

SCHOOL CENSUS.—The school census of Baltimore gives 86,961 children and youth of the school age—between five and twenty-one years. By the last United States census, in a population of 38,558,371, there were 13,735,672 children of the school age, equal to one in each 2.77 of the total population. On this basis, the school census makes the total population of the city to be 240,881, which is much lower than the most careful independent estimates give it at, or, indeed, than of the official census of 1870, which made the population of the city 283,000, to say nothing of the local census since taken, which increased it to over 300,000. So, it is clear that all the children have not come to the surface. Many of them, it is presumed, were in their little beds.—*Baltimore Sun*.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.—At the end of the third academic year, June 12, 1879, six scholars of the Johns Hopkins University were admitted to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, and three to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The ceremonies were not publicly announced, and were attended only by the officers and students of the University, and a few other persons who had heard of the occasion. Upon one side of the platform in Hopkins Hall sat the President (Mr. Galloway Cheston) and the members of the Board of Trustees; upon the opposite side were President Gilman and the professors and associates of the University. The candidates were seated in front of the platform.

President Gilman presented the candidates to the Trustees in a brief address, and the degrees were then formally announced.

The following persons were admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, viz:

1. George W. McCreary, of Baltimore, who graduated at the City College in 1874, and has successfully completed a course of classical studies, as well as courses in Physics, French and German.

2. A. Chase Palmer, of Baltimore, who received his early training under Rev. Dr. Dalrymple, and was afterwards a member of Princeton College. He has pursued a course of classical and historical studies, and the major course in German, and has also for a year and a half worked with success in the chemical laboratory.

3. Edward H. Spieker, who finished the course at the City College in 1877, and has since pursued a course of classical studies, together with French and German, and a course in Physics extending through one year.

The following persons were admitted to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and Master of Arts:

1. Maurice Bloomfield, of Illinois, who had received the degree of A. M. from Furman University, in Greenville, S. C., at which place he was pursuing special Oriental studies under Prof. C. H. Toy, then of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary. He has been examined in Sanscrit, Arabic, Syriac and Hebrew, and has submitted a thesis, which is to be published, on the Noun-formation of the Rig Veda. His attainments are certified to, not only by the resident teachers of this University, but also by Professor W. D. Whitney, of Yale College, whose pupil he was in 1877-8.

2. Samuel F. Clarke, of Illinois, whose first degree was received from Yale College, where he had pursued his studies in the Sheffield Scientific School. He has been devoted to biological research, and has been examined in animal morphology and embryology, animal physiology and histology, and vegetable morphology. The subjects of his theses were (1) "The Development of Amblystoma," and (2) "A Report on a Collection of Deep Sea Hydroids from the Gulf of Mexico," submitted to him by Prof. A.

Agassiz, of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, Cambridge. The second of these papers has been printed by the Museum.

3. George B. Halsted, of New Jersey, who graduated in Princeton College in 1876, and is now a tutor of mathematics in that institution. He was examined in mathematics and logic. His thesis, entitled "Basis for a Dual Logic," was submitted to and approved by Professor Francis Bowen, Professor of Logic in Harvard College.

4. Edward Hart, of Pennsylvania, received his early training in Lafayette College, where he received a degree in 1874, and is now assistant Professor of Chemistry. He was examined in chemistry and physics. His thesis, the result of prolonged work in the chemical laboratory, was on "Nitrosulphobenzoic Acids and their Derivatives."

5. William W. Jacques, of Massachusetts, who was graduated in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, in 1876. His thesis has been accepted for publication by the Rumford committee (of which Professor John Trowbridge, of Harvard University, is secretary) in the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The subject of this thesis was the "Distribution of Heat in the Spectra of Various Substances." He was examined in chemistry and physics.

6. Henry Sewall, of Maryland, was graduated as Bachelor of Science by the Wesleyan University, at Middletown, in 1876. He has been engaged in the biological laboratory, and has been examined in animal physiology and histology, and also in animal morphology and vegetable physiology. He submitted a thesis on the "Development and Regeneration of the Gastric Glandular Epithelium during Fœtal Life and after Birth;" and also a paper on the "Physiology of Tetanus," which is to be published in the next number of the *Journal of Physiology*, London. In his examination, Dr. H. P. Bowditch, Professor of Physiology in Harvard College, took part.

On the nomination of the professors, the following persons were appointed Fellows for the year 1879-80. There were ninety-one candidates, who have presented diplomas from fifty-seven colleges, and who are residents of twenty-eight States and countries.

The following list indicates the names of the gentlemen who were appointed, the colleges in which they have graduated, and the departments with which they are to be connected:

Name.	College.	Department.
F. G. Allinson.....	Haverford; Harvard.....	Greek.
B. Ayres.....	Wash. & Lee; Stevens Inst.....	Physics.
L. Bever.....	Rutgers.....	Greek.
C. Fahlberg.....	Leipsic.....	Chemistry.
E. H. Hall.....	Bowdoin.....	Physics.
E. M. Hartwell.....	Amherst.....	Biology.
C. H. Hemphill.....	Univ. of Va.; Univ. of S. C....	Greek.

<i>Name.</i>	<i>College.</i>	<i>Department.</i>
J. R. McD. Irby.....	Univ. Va. and Gottingen.....	Mineralogy.
M. Kuhara.....	Univ. of Tokio, Japan.....	Chemistry.
M. Marquand.....	Princeton.....	Logic and Ethics.
O. H. Mitchell.....	Marietta.....	Mathematics.
E. L. Nichols.....	Cornell; Gottingen.....	Physics.
W. S. Pratt.....	Williams	Philosophy.
W. T. Sedgwick.....	Yale	Biology.
W. T. Stringham.....	Harvard.....	Mathematics.
C. A. Van Velzer.....	Cornell	Mathematics.
H. Voorhees.....	Renss. Polytech. Inst	Chemistry.
A. V. E. Young.....	Univ. of Mich.....	Chemistry.
C. O. Whitman.....	Bowdoin; Leipsic	Biology.
E. B. Wilson.....	Yale	Biology.

For the ensuing year the trustees have invited the gentlemen below named to give instruction in the subjects named, in addition to the present staff:

1. In Theoretical Mechanics, Prof. J. Willard Gibbs, of Yale College.
2. In Logic, Prof. C. S. Pierce, of Cambridge, Mass.
3. In the History of Philosophy, Prof. Geo. S. Morris, of the University of Michigan.
4. In English Literature, Mr. Sidney Lanier, of Baltimore.
5. In English Philosophy, Mr. Albert S. Cooke, of Rutgers College.
6. In Latin, Mr. Minton Warren, formerly of Tufts College, and for some years past a student in Germany and France.

The president and professors of the University, believing that scholarships yielding incomes to meritorious students are of great and immediate importance, have made a contribution of \$500, and have paid it to the treasurer of the University, to be bestowed next year in two scholarships of \$250 each. One of these purses is designed for a graduate of Johns Hopkins University, and the other for a graduate of any college. The object of this gift is to furnish an example, to those who are wealthy, of a mode in which young men of merit and promise may be honorably encouraged to pursue their studies.

The University Register for the closing year has just been published, and the programmes of the work proposed for the coming year are now in press. Copies of these pamphlets may be obtained on application (by postal card) to the Johns Hopkins University.

THE MARYLAND STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION will meet at Hagerstown on the 27th and 28th of August. Teachers have not forgotten their last pleasant meeting at Hagerstown, and will be glad to renew pleasant memories. When we say that P. A. Witmer is chairman of the Executive Committee, we have said enough to give assurance of a hospitable welcome and a well-arranged programme.

NORMAL SCHOOL COMMENCEMENT.—There was an occasion of great interest at the Normal School yesterday afternoon. This was the first exhibition of the work of the drawing classes, who have been in charge of Miss Josephine C. Locke the past eight months. The drawings on the blackboards in the several class-rooms, and the work of the pupils in the way of examination papers, and specimens of the daily class work were displayed in several rooms, and attracted much attention and received hearty praise.

In the several departments of geometrical dictation, original design and object drawing, there were results which show that there must have been a force of enthusiasm on the part of the teachers and an interest on the part of the scholars that is, to say the least, unusual. The occasion of the exhibition was one of great interest. The names of the scholars who had earned credit were announced by the distinguished artist, Mr. Way, who thus gave the endorsement of his well-earned reputation to these beginnings. When the two prizes of gold pencils were awarded to the two little nine-year-old girls, Emma Peppler and Bessie Baer, there was a sensation, as Professor Newell made a graceful speech to each one of them, and told the audience that he was glad to be able to say that they were as proficient in other studies as they were in drawing.

In the address which followed, Colonel J. Edwards Clarke, of the National Bureau of Education, stated a fact which is probably unknown to most of the people of this city, that this system, which comes from England and is known as the Massachusetts system, was really in practice here in Baltimore in 1847, and that when the schools of South Kensington were founded, they took as one of the text-books the work of our townsman, Mr. Minifie, which book still keeps its place among the text-books in use there; and there is little doubt that Professor Walter Smith, now Art Director of the State of Massachusetts, who for ten years was a pupil of the South Kensington schools, was trained upon the text-book written by a drawing teacher in the boy's High School of Baltimore; so that this famous system which has revolutionized the education of England, and which promises so much for the industrial art education of America, has really a right to be called a Baltimore idea. It fortunately happened that Mr. Minifie, of whom all these things were being said, sat on the stage in unconsciousness of what was being said, by reason of deafness, while the speaker was ignorant of his presence; the audience, however, appreciated the situation. The economical reasons why this study should be introduced into the public schools were succinctly stated in the address, and the results of the experiment in England, in Massachusetts, and in our neighbor city of Washington were set forth.

In the evening the regular Normal School commencement took place. The hall was filled in every part, the graduates and distinguished visitors occupying seats upon the platform. The scene presented was a beautiful one, the graduating class, or rather the feminine portion of it, being ar-

rayed in spotless white, while in front of them the remaining members of the school were arrayed in garbs presenting all the colors of the rainbow, intermingled with the sombre hues of the male attire. Between the classes and the other pupils stands of choice flowers made the tableau look like a scene from fairy land. Among the many distinguished visitors present were: Governor Carroll, Mayor Latrobe, Attorney General Gwinn, President Gilman, of Johns Hopkins University; Professors Morgan and Elliott, of the City College; Professor Shepherd, Superintendent of Public Schools; Dr. J. F. Williams, Dr. E. H. Richardson, Dr. J. P. R. Gillis and P. A. Witmer, of the State Board of Education; Hon. Isaac D. Jones, Hon. John Robb, Hon. F. P. Stevens, Dr. James Carey Thomas, Col. Taylor, of Governor Carroll's staff, and others.

The order of exercises opened with the solo and chorus, "Hear us, our Father," Palmer, the solo part being sung by Miss Bessie Oliver. The opening prayer by Rev. A. E. Gibson, D.D., of Grace M. E. Church, was then followed by the chorus, "The Nation's Cry," sung by the school. The salutatory, "Origin of our Schools," by Frederick S. Myerly, was a very pleasing effort from the young graduate, the first part being devoted to welcoming the visitors and returning thanks to the Governor, Mayor, members of the School Board and others for the interest manifested by them.

The school then rendered another chorus, entitled "Welcome," Verdi; followed by the honorary, "The Child the Father of the Man," written by Miss Meachie Kidd and read by Miss H. Lenore Patterson, a pleasing simile being made that the child to the man was like unto a blank piece of paper written over with sympathetic inks, each needing its own particular agent to bring out its varied lights and shades. "Daylight is Fading," Bonaldi, was then sung by the school, followed by the valedictory, "Domestic Economy," by Miss Elizabeth Fundenburg. This, to most of the visitors, no doubt, proved to be the pleasantest feature of the evening, the pleasant humor of the essay eliciting roars of laughter. Referring to Chapter 377 of the Maryland Code, she read the Section referring to what shall be taught, closing with "domestic economy"—when it shall so please the visiting board, saying for its non-existence in the Normal School, they, no doubt, like Dogberry, thought it should come naturally to woman. She said: "We learn to make promissory notes, but not pastry; we know all about acids, but not soups; we can tell you all about the anatomy of man, but who of us can serve a boneless turkey, or knows the best cut of roast beef; we can tell you all about the great centrifugal forces of nature; but, alas! we know nothing of that mysterious force by which man is taught to revolve in meek submission," and so on, saying that in the future, if domestic economy should be taught, the fair graduate could respond to the salutation, "Did you pass?" by answering, "Oh! yes, I got ninety for *bread*, but only seven for *hash*." Passing from the humorous to the serious, the speaker in turn addressed the young

ladies and the young gentlemen of the graduating class, bidding them farewell and God speed in their endeavors through life, to the teachers and principal for their care and encouragement given them during their course of study, to the Governor for his kind attention to the school, and to the many kind friends for their presence and kindly attention at all times.

"See How Lightly," a chorus by Donizetti, was then sung by the school, after which Prof. Newell, the principal, previous to announcing the graduates, made the explanation that the diplomas now conferred were only preliminary ones, being a certificate only, the regular diplomas, according to law, being only conferred after a year's course of teaching. The graduates were then announced as follows: John P. De Lauder and Andrew C. McBride, of Frederick county; Wm. J. Griffith, Misses Meachie Kidd, Bianca Glascock, Florence Loane, Elizabeth Newell, H. Lenore Patterson, Elizabeth Saulsbury, Laura B. Shaffer and Cornelia Wilson, of Baltimore city; Kate L. Dorsey, of Calvert county; Eveline Engeman, of Talbot county; Nannie Feast, Susie Heidelberg and Margaret C. Watson, of Baltimore county; Elizabeth H. Fundenberg, Allegheny county; Martha J. Glanding, Queen Anne's county; James J. Kelly and Louise W. Webster, Anne Arundel county; Perpetua Kendall, Anna Simpson and Caroline I. Smith, Kent county; Frederick S. Myerly, Carroll county, and Maria J. Offut, of Montgomery county.

Following the announcement of the graduates, the school sang "The Night is Still;" on the conclusion of which Governor Carroll was presented, and addressed the graduates:

"**LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE GRADUATING CLASS:**—Before undertaking the very pleasing task with which I have been honored this evening at the request of the graduating class, namely, the distribution of the diplomas, I have been asked by Professor Newell to make a few remarks which might be pertinent to this agreeable occasion. And here I would certainly confess to a very decided feeling of diffidence were I expected to tender to the young ladies before me anything in the way of advice, for, undoubtedly, my experience and observation in life has been that the best inspirations that I have seen, known and acted on, have been drawn from the kindly suggestions and the pure and lofty sentiments of the gentle sex. You will, therefore, readily understand that I would always rather defer to your counsel than to offer any suggestions of my own as a guide for your future action. My purpose here to-night is simply to congratulate you upon the termination of those labors which must fit you so eminently for the calling you have selected, to say a few words upon the importance of encouraging our great system of public education, and particularly to ask you to note how great an element woman has become in its rapid and marvellous development. When our forefathers cast about for a form of government suitable to the infant nation which had just secured its independence, they very wisely saw that

education and morality were more important to the stability of a people than laws; for history records many instances where the latter, however wisely framed, have been found unequal to the preservation of societies in which the former have been corrupted by ignorance and vice. They, therefore, at this early day made education the very essence of our government; for, instead of restricting authority to a class born to rule us of divine right, they threw upon the people the necessity for improvement by giving to the humblest citizen the power of attaining the highest honors. And so, as the nation has gone along and prospered for one hundred years, this small seed of education planted by them has grown into a mighty tree, whose branches to-day spread out over forty States, covering with its healthy and protecting shade millions of people who could not have provided for themselves. I think we may safely say that there is no nation on earth whose average citizen is more thoroughly posted upon the necessities and the machinery of the government that rules him than our own. This knowledge, diffused among the masses, is the secret of our being able to carry on this government from year to year without convulsion. Demagogues cannot long impose upon the credulity of a people who are gifted with elementary education. Tyrants cannot strike down our liberties when we know that by force of law we can immediately regain them; nor can dictators assume or hold an authority which every man who walks the streets will recognize that they have no right to wield. If such be the consequence of the education of our people, giving to them that self-reliance so important to their permanent success, is it not a pleasing thought that woman has had an equal share with man in bringing about these great results? I never have been an advocate of that school which would draw woman from the duties of her family circle and invest her with rights incident to the excitement and hurly-burly of political life. If, however, as an instructor of youth she can take part in advancing the prosperity of the nation, we must admit that this is a duty in accord with her highest vocations, and should be honored and encouraged by all. And now, in this State, your principal tells us in his annual report that of over 2,000 teachers who instruct our youth, one-half at least are women. You who graduate here under the tutelage and fostering care of the State have a far higher role to play than the majority of teachers who are selected to perform this duty. To make education valuable, the teachers must be efficient, not only in imparting to the youth of the State the knowledge that can be found written down in books, but also in bringing to their minds the far more important duties of what may be termed the 'unwritten law;' to lead them to the belief of all that honor and high tone demands, and to teach them at all times to listen to its callings, to lay before them the necessity of learning to obey, in order that at some future time they may know how to rule, and, above all, to recognize to its fullest extent their obligations to their fellow-man. It is directly within the line of your nature to teach these lessons, and the

State, in furnishing at great cost the facilities which you have realized here, looks to you to become far more than the ordinary instructors of her youth. The graduates of this Normal School should form a standard by which the Examiners of every county should be guided in the selection of their teachers, and if this theory be advocated by you and encouraged with pride, then it may not be in vain that the State has built this noble structure, and perhaps the ceremony of to-night may be something more than empty talk. It will now give me great pleasure to distribute the testimonials which you have so honorably won."

At the conclusion of the address the graduates were severally presented to the Governor by Prof. Smith; His Excellency, as each approached, handing to them the diploma, receiving in return their profound acknowledgments. The exercises closed by the singing of the grand chorus, "Gloria in Excelsis," Mozart, and the benediction, pronounced by the Rev. Dr. Gibson.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION will hold its fiftieth annual meeting at Fabyan's, White Mountains, July 8, 9, 10 and 11, 1879. This Institute is the oldest and largest educational association in the country. Though an organization more especially for teachers and school officers, it welcomes others to its membership. According to its constitution, "Any person of good moral character, interested in the subject of education, may become a member by paying a fee of one dollar."

A large building, capable of seating twenty-five hundred persons, is to be ready for use by the convention, and in this the eight sessions of the meeting are to be held. It is proposed to hold two sessions each day: From 9.30 A. M. to 1 P. M., and from 7.30 to 9.30 P. M.

The following named gentlemen may be relied upon to take part: Gen. John Eaton, Hon. Henry Barnard, (Subject: Neglected Children); Hon. B. G. Northrop, (Subject: The High School Question); Hon. Edward Conant, Hon. John W. Dickinson, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, (Subject: Oral Instruction); Hon. W. T. Harris, Hon. John Hancock, (Subject: Piecework); Prof. C. A. Young, (Subject: Eclipses of the Sun, with Stereopticon Illustrations); Prof. J. L. Lincoln, Principal A. C. Perkins, (Subject: Extremists in Education); Prof. C. C. Rounds, (Subject: Educational Journalism); Prof. Judah Dana, Geo. A. Walton, Esq., (Lesson in Teaching Numbers); Principal J. W. Webster, (Lesson in Writing).

Arrangements have been made with a large number of railroad and steamboat lines to issue tickets to Fabyan's *and return*, on the express condition that no such ticket shall "be good for return passage unless it bears the stamp of the secretary of the American Institute of Instruction, which must be obtained at the Fabyan House between July 5 and 12, inclusive." Tickets will be good to go from July 4 to 9, inclusive, and for return on or before August 4, and will be for sale from July 1 to 8, inclusive. From

Baltimore to Fabyan's and return, \$17. Tickets to be had of Prof. M. A. Newell, State Normal School, Baltimore, or from George R. Newell, N. E. corner Lexington and St. Paul Sts.

Hotels.—The rates given below for hotels and boarding-houses are for *those only* who hold certificates of membership in the Institute, and are good from July 5 to 14, inclusive, unless otherwise specified.

At White Mountain.—Fabyan House, 500 guests; Crawford House, four miles south, 500 guests; Twin Mountain House, four miles north, 300 guests; all, \$1.50 per day for ladies, and \$2.50 for gentlemen. Railroad trains will be run to accommodate guests at the Crawford and Twin Mountain houses in going to and from the meetings. Fare, 10 cents each way. White Mountain House, 150 guests, and Mount Pleasant House, 150 guests, \$1.50 per day, including free carriage to and from the meetings, if desired. Rates at the last two good from July 1 to 31. Corresponding low rates at all the hotels in the White Mountain region.

Excursions.—Thirty-eight special excursions are offered. We give the first nine as a sample:

No. 1. Fabyan's to summit Mt. Washington and return *via* Mt. Washington railway, \$3. No. 2. Fabyan's to base Mt. Washington and return, \$1. No. 3. Fabyan's *via* rail to Bethlehem and new narrow gauge railroad to Profile House and return, \$2. No. 4. Profile House to Flume and return, by carriage, \$1.50. No. 5. Bethlehem Station to Profile House and return *via* narrow gauge railroad, \$1.50. No. 6. Fabyan's to Jefferson and return, \$2. No. 7. Fabyan's to Brunswick Springs and return, \$3. No. 8. Fabyan's to Dixville Notch and return, \$7. No. 9. Fabyan's to Wells River and return, \$2.

Hotel Rates on Excursions.—To persons presenting certificates of membership of the Institute, the following reduced rates at hotels are offered on excursions. Those marked (c) include free carriage to and from railroad station, or are so situated that no carriage is needed: Summit House, Mt. Washington, (c) meals, \$1 each, lodging, \$1. Persons remaining over night will be charged for lodging, supper and breakfast, \$3. Pemigewasset House, Plymouth, (c) \$2.50 per day; dinner, ladies 50 cents, gentlemen 75 cents. Thayer's Hotel, Littleton, (c), ladies \$1.50, gentlemen \$2 per day. Pavilion, Montpelier (c); Welden House, St. Albans (c), \$2 per day, meals 75 cents each. Lake Shore Hotel, Oswego (c), \$2 per day, dinners 50 cents each. Woodruff House, Watertown, N. Y., (c) \$2.50 per day; meals or lodging, 75 cents each. United States, Portland; Ocean House, Old Orchard beach (c); \$1.50 per day. Lake Side House, Weir's (c); Brunswick Springs House; American, Burlington, Vt. (c); St. Louis, Quebec; Fouquet House, Plattsburgh (c); \$2 per day. Maplewood, Bethlehem; Flume, Franconia Notch; Windsor, Montreal; United States, Boston; Ocean Bluff, Kennebunkport, Me.; Thousand Islands House (c); Fort William Henry, Lake George (c); Congress Hall, Saratoga (c); and International, Niagara Falls (c); \$2.50 per day. Memphremagog House

(c), ladies \$2, gentlemen \$2.50 per day. Glen House, Profile House (c), and Ocean House, Newport, R. I., each \$3 per day. Ranlet's Hotel, Bethlehem, \$1.50 per day; room 50 cents per day, each person. Pavilion, Wolfboro, ladies \$150, gentlemen, \$2.50 per day.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY, England, seems about to enter upon the same sort of system of classical teaching as that which our Johns Hopkins University began with. The classical studies of Cambridge, the *alma mater* of Bentley and Porson, have hitherto gone upon the line of pure, technical scholarship. Accuracy in text and construction of the languages and in verse-making in Latin and Greek has regulated the standard of excellence, but will do so no longer. Instead of confining the students to working out and making their own the refinements and intricacies of Greek and Latin, regarded as mere languages, the senate of the University has now, after long deliberation, determined to infuse other and more vital elements into the competition for the classical trips. The student will be required to replenish his mind with a more intimate knowledge of the life and thought of the ancients; to study Greek and Latin history, antiquities and literature, with a view to acquiring something more than a mere critical acquaintance with the grammar and structure of the ancient tongues. This change of programme is entirely in the spirit of Prof. Gildersleeve's article on classical study, in the May number of the *Princeton Review*.—*Baltimore Sun*.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION will meet in the Normal School building, Philadelphia, on the 29th, 30th and 31st of July. The complete programme has not yet reached us, but enough is known to enable us to assure our readers that it will be one of the most interesting educational gatherings ever held on this continent. We hope to meet a large number of Maryland teachers there; we can assure them of a hearty welcome, and of results that will amply repay the trouble and expense.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY has taken a step in the direction of providing for the higher education of women in Baltimore by inviting a young lady who, during a year's residence in Baltimore and previously, has shown marked ability in the study of mathematics, to continue her mathematical studies in the University, and have voted her an honorary stipend equal to that bestowed upon young men who are invited to fellowships. This is not only a compliment to the lady, but it is a step in a direction toward something higher. The University lectures have always been open to women, but this is the first time that the fellowship privileges of the University have been tendered to any but men. The Faculty of the University will have to put their heads together to coin a word to apply to young ladies who secure such positions as these, for it would hardly do

to call them fellows. Coining words is a very simple task now-a-days, however, and we have no doubt the erudite Faculty will find an easy solution of the difficulty.—*Baltimore American*

THE THIRD GENERAL MEETING of the *American Library Association* will be held in Boston, June 30, and July 1 and 2. The object of the Association is "to improve the work done in libraries, and elevate the character of popular reading: to make more readers, better readers, and of better books." The membership fee is only \$2 per annum, and members can obtain all library supplies through the Association at a discount of 10 per cent. We cordially commend the Association and its object to the consideration of our readers. Mr. Melvin Dewey, Secretary, P. O. 260, Boston, will receive applications for membership.

THIS number completes our Sixth Volume. Our readers are more numerous, our prospects brighter than at any former period. The first number of the Seventh Volume will appear early in September, under the auspices of GEORGE R. NEWELL, Publisher, 33 Lexington Street, to whom all business communications should be addressed. The editorial corps remains without change.

CORRESPONDENCE.

TEACHERS' RELIEF ASSOCIATION.

CENTREVILLE, MD, May, 1879.

To The Teachers of Maryland:

A circular was sent to you, through your Examiner, in January last, calling your attention to a proposition from the Teachers' Association of Queen Anne's county to organize a Teachers' Relief Association, to be composed of the teachers in public and private schools of all grades. Having received favorable responses from several of the counties, our committee has been authorized to request the teachers of the several counties in the State to appoint a committee of three, of whom the Examiner shall be one, and also request the Faculties of St. John's, Western Maryland, Agricultural and Washington Colleges to appoint one of their number to meet in convention in Hagerstown during the next session of the State Teachers' Association.

We ask that said committees shall endeavor to ascertain the views of their fellow-teachers on this subject, and the probable number that will join. We earnestly desire to effect an organization this summer, that we may begin at the opening of the ensuing scholastic year. Let each one be prepared to meet the subject fairly, and be able to present a plan that will not be onerous upon the members. Prepare a system of mortuary

taxation, similar to the one we submit, or if a better one suggests itself, present it. Study carefully the plan of putting aside a portion of all fees to be used as weekly benefits for those of our membership who, from physical disability, are temporarily out of employment.

The necessity for such a society is very evident to all who have the welfare of their co-workers at heart.

Relief associations have been in existence for a number of years, and are found in almost every vocation of life, professional as well as mechanical. Why then should teachers not make the same effort to provide for those dependent upon them? With over two thousand teachers in the counties of Maryland a sufficient number can certainly be found willing to co-operate in organizing the proposed Association.

Remember, teachers, it is for your wives and children, who lean upon you alone for their support; it is for aged fathers and mothers, whose best years were spent in providing for you, and who, in their old age and feebleness, have a right to expect help from you; were you to die, they would, in many instances, be entirely helpless.

* We propose to pay from \$750 to \$2,000 to the legal heirs or representatives of a deceased member, and suggest the following plan by which the amount can be raised:

Divide the membership into four classes, viz: 1st. All under 30 years of age; 2d, between 30 and 40; 3d, between 40 and 50; 4th, all over 50.

A membership of 500 would be divided and taxed for each death as follows:

1st Class.....	250.....	assessed at \$2.50.....	would give.....	\$625.00
2d ".....	125.....	" 3.00.....	" 	375.00
3d ".....	75.....	" 3.50.....	" 	262.50
4th ".....	50.....	" 4.00.....	" 	200.00

The membership contributing.....\$1,462.50

With a membership of 1,000, upon the same plan, but a diminished rate, we have:

1st Class.....	500.....	assessed at \$2.00.....	would give.....	\$1000.00
2d ".....	250.....	" 2.50.....	" 	625.00
3d ".....	150.....	" 3.00.....	" 	450.00
4th ".....	100.....	" 3.50.....	" 	350.00

Total amount.....\$2,425.00

From the first we could pay \$1,000, and from the second \$2,000, to the family of the deceased member, and that too without a very heavy cost to ourselves. The balance should be invested for use in the beneficiary fund heretofore mentioned. We sincerely hope that every county will be represented by delegates, and they empowered to act favorably.

W. E. THOMPSON, *Chairman.*

NORA B. BLOUNT.

BOOK NOTICES.

HIGHER EDUCATION AND A COMMON LANGUAGE (Atlas Series No. 9). By Philip Gilbert Hamerton, Pres. M'Cosh, Prof. Angelo de Gubernatis and others. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. Pp. 120, 8vo. Price, 40 cents.

The title gives but little idea of the variety and excellence of the seven essays contained in this volume. We especially commend the discourse on the "Study of the Greek and Latin Classes," by Dr. Charles Elliott, to the consideration of those who are inclined to place language in a subordinate rank in the hierarchy of studies. The essay on "Industrial Art Education in the United States," is also deserving of the closest attention

SHAKESPEARE'S TRAGEDY OF HAMLET, for use in Schools and classes. By the Rev. Henry N. Hudson. Boston: Ginn & Heath. Pp. 225, small quarto.

Annotated, expurgated, beautifully printed; and in every way adapted to class use. Perhaps the notes are too full, but that is a fault easily pardoned. A three months' study of such a volume is worth three years of *parsing*.

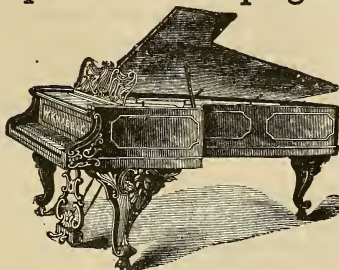
SIX SELECTIONS FROM IRVING'S SKETCH-BOOK, with notes, questions, etc., for Home and School Use. By Homer B. Sprague, Ph. D. Boston: Ginn & Heath. Pp. 48, 12mo.

The purpose of the book is altogether praiseworthy; and the selections admirably adapted to the purpose. We cannot say much for the "Notes." Why it must be printed at the foot of a page that "James Thompson wrote the Castle of Indolence;" also, "The Seasons;" that the "Tappan Zee" is ten miles long and four wide; that "Tarrytown" is twenty-seven miles from New York; that "reverberated" is from the "Latin *re*, back, again, *verberare*, to lash," and that a "pow-wow" was a "meeting held with incantations before a hunt, at which there were "feasting, dancing and great noise and confusion," does not clearly appear. If *all* such words are to be explained in foot notes, the "Six Selections" would need more than six hundred pages of notes.

A MANUAL OF INTERNATIONAL LAW. By Edward M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL.D., President of the College for Deaf Mutes, Washington, D. C. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. Pp. 321, 12mo. Price, \$1.50.

The author indulges the hope that "the publication of this Manual may enable many educational institutions to include the subject of International Law in their courses of study;" and the Reviewer thinks this "were a consummation devoutly to be wished for." International Law would be at least as useful to the majority of students, who are afterwards to become citizens, as—well, let us say, the Differential Calculus.

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